

**REFRESHER COURSE
IN
WORLD HISTORY**

For

**Pre-University, Hr. Sec. and Indian School Certificate
and Various Competitive Examinations**

By

D.N. KUNDRA

(Author of Several Books on History)

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ON THE SAME PLAN

1. A New Text Book of History of India
Part I (From Earliest-Times to 1526 A.D.)
2. A New Text Book of History of India
Part II (From 1526 to the Present Day)

(Hindi and Punjabi Editions are also available)

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PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

This book has been written on the persistent demands of the different students who are appearing for the Pre-University, Higher Secondary, Indian School Certificate and various Competitive Examinations.

The present volume is both narrative and critical and contains sufficiently exhaustive treatment of the social, political, economic and cultural aspects of the World History. The simple style and easy language, in which the book has been written, the numerous maps and illustrations, which have been inserted to make the subject-matter all the more clear will, we hope, make the subject easy and delightful to the students.

But the chief attraction of the book is that it will fulfil all the needs of the present day students. At the end of every chapter section-wise summary of the whole Chapter is added so that both Essay-type and Short Questions may be answered with perfect ease and accuracy. Again every Chapter contains various Essay-type, Short and Objective-type Questions set by various Universities

I am confident that like all my other books, the present volume will also find favour, both with the students as well as with the teachers. We shall feel highly satisfied if the book serves the purpose for which it is written.

Our thanks are due to various eminent historians whose standard works we have consulted with profit.

Any suggestions, with a view to make the present book all the more useful, will be thankfully received.

Devindar Nath Kundra

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Palaeolithic and Neolithic Periods

How the earth, on which we live, came into existence and how it was formed, how life and man appeared on it and how he marched towards civilization, is a very long and interesting story. But all these things have a connection with the distant past and then there is no material at our disposal to form a correct idea about them. There are no written records about them. Even then the geologists and the archaeologists have tried to rebuild the man's early life after carefully examining the remains that have been found in graves, caves and in ancient cities that have been dug from time to time.

SECTION 1—SOURCES OF KNOWLEDGE OF PRE-HISTORY

We have no written records of the earliest times. But by digging up and studying carefully the remains of the ancient people and their articles of daily use, the scientists have been able to find out a lot of things about the earliest man and his way of living. In the absence of written records the geologists and the archaeologists have reconstructed the history of the pre-historic man from his remains. Thus, though we have no reliable source of knowledge about the pre-historic man yet we can form an idea of the life of the earliest man from the following sources, incomplete though they may be :—

1. **Pre-hisotric Tools and Weapons.** No other thing has helped us as much, to know the pre-historic life, as the pre-historic tools and weapons whether they are small or big, crude or beautiful, polished or unpolished. The pre-historic man used to live on this earth thousands of years ago. He left this world long long ago but the tools he left behind which have been found by digging the ancient ruins have helped the scientists a lot to rebuild man's early history.

These tools have been found in caves and various other places which help a great deal in forming an idea of their dwellings. After studying their tools and weapons, scientists have tried to know their *way of hunting and food-habits*. The shape and beautiful polish of these weapons help us to learn how the earliest man *progressed towards civilization and culture*. The scientists have divided the ancient period into Palaeolithic and Neolithic Ages on the basis of the shape of these weapons. The man in the Palaeolithic Age used crude, rough and unpolished tools while he used smooth and

beautiful and polished weapons in Neolithic period. It can be safely concluded that man in the Neolithic Age was more civilized than the man of the Palaeolithic Age. Their tools also throw light on *man's power of inventing new things*. These tools were used by hand so the scientists have come to the conclusion that the earliest man had learnt to stand on his feet and to make free use of his hands. So these tools and weapons are a very useful source of knowledge of the pre-historical period.

2 Pre-historic Fossils of Men and Animals When living things die, their bodies decay and fall in pieces, but some parts last for a longer time : the bones or skeletons longest of all. From the pre historic fossils of men and animals the anthropologists have studied the *physical features of the earliest man*. They have gained some idea of the size and postures of the bodies of our early ancestors. They can also form an idea about *the race* to which he belonged and the time of his existence on earth. The modern scientific inventions have proved very useful in knowing the *period of existence of man on earth* by studying his bones and skeletons. The scientists are of the view that a certain element known as Carbon-14 is found in certain quantity in every living creature. It goes on breaking in a systemic manner and with a definite speed. By examining the quantity of this Carbon-14 in the bones of a man we can come to know when he was alive on the surface of this earth. By studying the bones and skeletons found in Java, Peking, Heidelberg and Neanderthal etc the anthropologists have formed an idea of men who were chinless, who could walk erect and who resembled the modern man most of all. By using these fossils, the scientists have rediscovered the Java Man ; the most primitive man about whom we know. When the scientists found some Charred bones, they came to the conclusion that the pre-historic man knew the use of fire also.

3. Paintings. The realistic paintings of the earliest man on the walls of the caves in Northern Spain, in Southern France and many other parts of the world are another important source of the knowledge of pre-historic life. Paintings in the caves of Altamira in Spain and Lascaux in France are known throughout the world.

These paintings create a very favourable impression of the artistic achievements of the pre-historic man. The paintings of the animals like bull, elephant, bear, stag, rhinoceros etc speak of the *existence of these animals* in this period. These paintings tell us that pre-historic man was well versed in the art of painting. According to **H.G. Wells**, "*They were uncivilized but artistic people*". They have made a beautiful use of red, blue, yellow and brown colours in the cave paintings of Altamira. These paintings on the walls of dark caves throw light on their *belief in magic and charms*. The paintings of men and women help us to form an idea of the outward appearances of men and women of that period. They help us to learn about their *dress* also.

The images, models and statues of clay and stone built by pre-historic men and carved designs on weapons have also been

discovered. They throw enough light on the artistic achievements of men in the pre-historic period. We also learn about their religious beliefs and their faith in magic from these articles

Though, the above mentioned sources of knowledge of pre-historic period are incomplete, still they have helped us a lot in rebuilding man's early life

SECTION 2—ORIGIN AND EVOLUTION OF MAN

1. **The Making of Earth** The miracle of how the earth, the home of man, was formed, is still a mystery. According to scientists our earth was once a part of the sun. Due to tidal waves in the sun it got separated from the sun. Many, many ages past, perhaps three thousand million years ago, the earth started its journey round the sun as a fiery ball. Gradually, amid earthquakes, storms and heavy rains it cooled down and a hard crust of rocks was formed on its surface. There were many violent changes. Sometimes, the crust was forced upwards and great mountains were formed; at other times the land sank and wide regions were hidden under the sea. There were cooler periods also when vast stretches of earth were frozen. No doubt there were warmer ages, too in between. Then the struggle grew quieter, and after a time of great upheavals when mighty mountain-ranges were formed, the earth settled gradually into something like its present form. Its oceans and continents, mountains, lakes, rivers, plains and valleys and frozen Polar regions became more or less as they are to-day.

2 **Origin of Man.** During the countless years, when the earth was taking shape, no living thing could dwell on it. But at length, life began, we know not how. First there appeared in the sea tiny living creatures like specks of jelly. It had no shells or bones but it could multiply very rapidly. Slowly from this humble beginning, there developed a multitude of living things. Simple form of life gave birth to complex water plants and sea animals. There also grew up animals like frogs and toads, which were born in the water, but they came to live on the land. Some of them grew to huge sizes. Then there were seen swarms of great fishes.

Then came the age of reptiles and monsters like giant lizards in the oceans and on land. Some of these reptiles ate flesh and preyed upon the lower animals and upon each other. But most of them were plant-eaters. Some of these huge animals were up to 50 feet high. But they had small brains and very little intelligence. These giant reptiles came to be known as Dinosaurs. These reptiles lived on the earth about seventy million years ago.

Some of these reptiles developed into queer looking birds which flew about and nested in the huge mosses and ferns of that far away world. They were the ancestors of our modern birds, but they had sharp teeth in their jaws and claws on their wings. Some of them were too large to fly, but they ran swiftly across the land.

At length there appeared the mammals, creatures with fur and hair and warm blood and milk to feed their young ones. It is probable that the first mammals appeared on our earth about fifty million years ago. Then the warm weather gradually gave way to cold. These periods are called Ice Ages. Four such Ice Ages are well known and recognized in history. Living creatures moved to warmer regions but many of them were wiped off completely. But certain mammals survived. As the time went on huge mammals came into existence. There were great bears, gigantic tigers, with teeth like swords, camels, elephants, horses etc.

Among these mammals were the monkeys and apes who were very much like men. There were many kinds of monkeys and apes—such as the gucrilla the chimpanzee and others. It is supposed that the first man-like-ammal developed from such species. They lived mostly in the trees but about a million years ago some of them also began to live on the ground and to walk upright on their hind legs. This left them free to use their front legs and paws as arms and hands with which they could grasp things and utitize them as they liked. The free use of their hands led them to use sticks and stones as tools and weapons. Their skill and intelligence grew greater and about 500,000 B.C. first creatures called men appeared on the earth. The famous English Naturalist, Darwin found similarities in the blood, bones and behaviour of the man and the monkey and propounded his famous theory which is generally known as the Drawin Theory. According to this theory man belongs to the same species as that of monkey

3. Evolution of Man. There is no doubt that the man who lived on this earth about five million years ago was very different from a modern farmer, mechanic or businessman. We know that, for long ages before history came to be written, different types of primitive men lived on many parts of the globe, and that mankind gradually improved from the savage creatures to civilized beings. The skeletons, bones, teeth and other things discovered at Java, Peking, Heidelberg, Piltdown and Neanderthal in France and various other parts of the world indicate to a great extent the evolution of man from the savage stage to the civilized one.

(1) *The Java Man* A Dutch army surgeon found a skull, two-teeth and a thigh bone at Java in 1891. They are considered to be of a man who lived about 500,000 years ago. He was half-ape and half-man because the size of the brain case lies half way between that of an ape and a man. His head was set forward on neck. He was five feet and six inches in height and could walk erect. The scientistists call him "The Erect Ape Man". The Java Man is the most primitive man about whom we know something substantial.

(2) *The Peking Man* About 40 human skeletons were discovered at Chou-kou-tein near Peking in 1929. Available evidence indicates that the Peuking Man lived about 500,000 years ago. It resembled the Ape Man of Java. He could walk erect. His remains have been found in a cave. It indicates that Peking man lived in

caves Some charred bones and weapons have also been found there. It shows that Peking Man knew how to use fire and make simple tools. Nearby are found the fossil remains of huge bears, tigers and other prehistoric animals which Peking man may have hunted. Fire helped him to roast meat and keep warm and frighten away wild animals

(3) *The Heidelberg Man* The remains of a man found at Heidelberg in Germany in 1907 show that Heidelberg man lived some 300 000 years ago. He possessed teeth but his chin was not fully developed and he had no power of speaking. As compared with the Java Man he had greater resemblance with the modern man. He had a brain capacity of about 1,000 cubic centimetres which clearly shows that his brain was more developed than that of the Java Man and the Peking Man.

(4) *The Piltdown Man*. A skull and a jaw bone was found at Piltdown in England in 1911. It was estimated that this man lived about 200,000 years ago. His skull resembled the skull of a modern man and lower jaw was very strong. His brain capacity lay midway between the Java Man and the modern man. The remains of his tools show that he had made much advance. He was called the 'Dawn Man'. Forty years later it was, however, discovered that Piltdown Man never existed. According to H.G. Wells, it was the most practical joke in human history.

(5) *The Neanderthal Man* Some skeleton-remains of men, women and children were discovered at Neanderthal in Germany in 1836. Similar remains were found at various other places in Africa, Asia and Europe. They are said to belong to the Neanderthal race of mankind. He lived about 100,000 years ago. He was not as yet a true man. His whole body was hairy. He was short-statured. He had low sloping forehead, big teeth, developed chin and protruding jaws. He could not stand erect like a modern man and did not possess the power of speech.

Neanderthal Man showed a marked advance over the Java Man. He probably stood more nearly erect and had a larger skull



Cro-Magnon Man



Neanderthal Man



Java Man

than the Java Man. He lived in caves and covered his body with skins. He made crude stone tools. He made the first hatchet by chipping

one side of the stone until its edge became thin and sharp. It could be used in many ways such as a hammer, knife, axe and a dagger etc. He now began to hunt animals for food and clothing. He used fire to keep himself warm, to cook his food and to frighten away from his cave the animals that preyed upon him. The use of fire paved the way for the growth of civilization. He had also become an inventor. He had taken what he found in nature and had improved upon it. He looked ferocious but he began to lead an organized life in groups. He had learnt to bury the dead bodies and started believing in life after death. He is considered to be the direct ancestor of the man of today.

(6) *The Cro-Magnon Man.* The Neanderthal type of man disappeared and about 35,000 years ago there lived a higher type of human being called Cro-Magnon Man, whose skeletons were found in France. He was so nearly like a modern man that the anthropologists have classed him in the same group, *i.e.*, the *Homo Sapiens* to which we all belong. He had a large powerful frame, a fine forehead, a long narrow skull, a thin nose, well developed chin and a good brain. He stood straight like a modern man. According to H. A. Davies the Cro-Magnon man marked a much higher stage in the evolution of human race. He was man in every sense of the word. He improved his stone tools. Pointed spears, awls, knives and harpoons were commonly used. He made fine needles with which he could sew his clothing of animal-skins. Ornaments made out of the teeth of wild animals and their skulls were extensively used.

He was also a good hunter and lived in caves. He was a capable artist. He was well versed in the art of paintings and drawing. He used many colours especially red, black, brown and yellow colours. Some of his creations are astonishingly good. Man had also begun to make his surroundings look more beautiful.

This physical development of man does not mean that he had developed mentally as well. In the initial stages man was quite savage. He lived in caves and ate the flesh of animals which he hunted. He had not as yet learnt to domesticate animals. He did not know to cultivate land and live on it. He did not, as yet live a settled life in homes. He was quite ignorant of the art of pottery. The Cro-Magnon Man can be considered as a true man only in appearance.

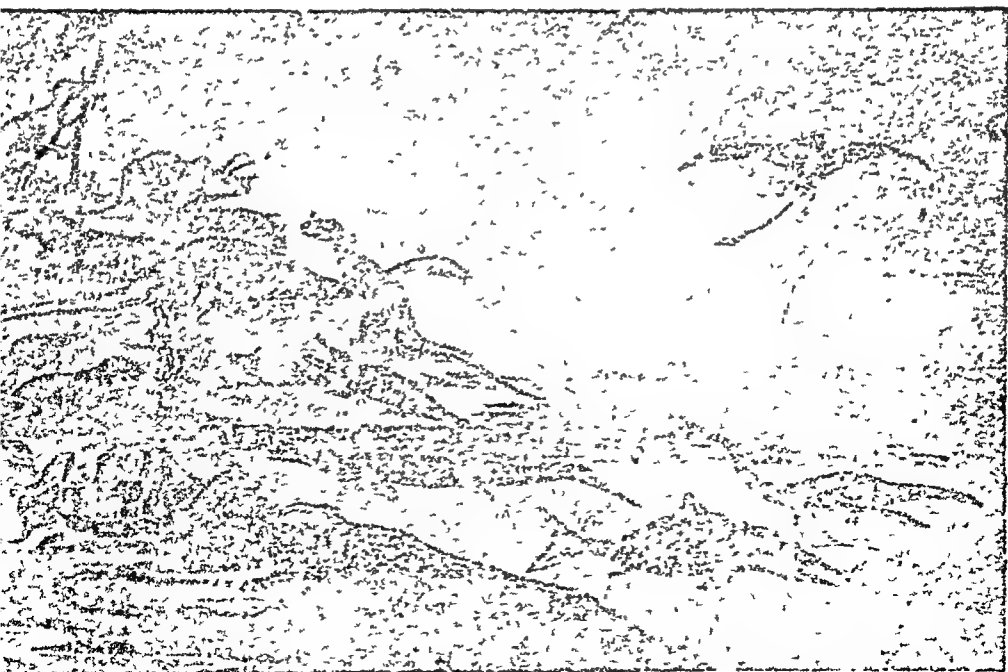
SECTION 3 THE PALAEOLITHIC AGE OR THE OLD STONE AGE

No one knows when man first appeared on the earth. What we call 'history' goes back only upto some six or seven thousand years, when people began to make written records on stones or clay tablets. The historic period starts when man acquired the art of writing. The long period before the historic period has been called prehistoric period by the historians. The tools and weapons of this period, discovered at various places, have helped us a lot to form an idea of this period so, many writers call this period as the 'Stone Age'. These stone tools were of two types—the primitive tools were rough, crude and unpolished but later on they were improved, made beautiful and were polished. On the basis and classification

of these tools and weapons the historians have divided the 'Stone Age' into two periods—the Palaeolithic Age or the Old Stone Age and the Neolithic Age or the New Stone Age. The first period when man used crude rough tools has been called the Palaeolithic Age and the second period when he used smooth, beautiful and polished tools is known as the Neolithic Age.

1 Duration of Palaeolithic Age. In the absence of any written records it is somewhat difficult to fix the duration of this age. The archaeologists have discovered the skeletons of the man who lived about 500,000 years ago. So the geologists and archaeologists are of the view that this age began roughly about 500,000 years ago and ended about 15,000 years ago. About 15,000 years ago man had not as yet left his cave-dwellings. He did not use polished tools. He did not cultivate land, the art of pottery was unknown to him.

2. Geographical Conditions. During this period, many things happened on this earth which helped the primitive man to grow more intelligent. Astronomers have calculated that the climate of the earth changes at the interval of every 100,000 years. About 500,000 years ago the regions in the northern hemisphere, where the first men are believed to have lived, gradually grew colder and colder. Many of the primitive people must have perished in such a cold climate and many of the prehistoric animals vanished. But some of the primitive men used their intelligence to escape to



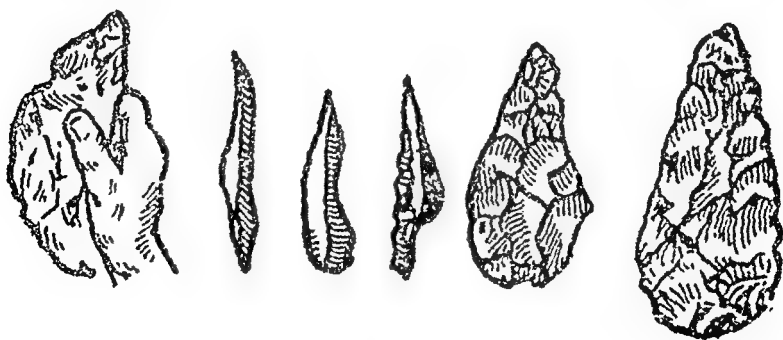
Prehistoric Beasts—Dinosaurs and others

warmer regions of the south. Some found out how to protect themselves from growing cold by taking shelter in caves, or covering their bodies with the skins of animals and above all, by making fire, of which all wild animals were afraid of.

It is estimated that during the past 500,000 years there were several changes of climate which are called Ice Ages or periods when large areas of northern hemisphere were covered by great sheets of ice. There were four such Ice Ages at the intervals of about 100,000 years. In between these Ice Ages the climate grew warmer again. It were the same changes of climate that destroyed the great reptiles such as dinosaurs. Though their bodies were huge yet they had very small brains and very little intelligence. Man has a larger brain than any other living being and, he used it to save himself from the ravages and changes of climate and other dangers he had to face in those early times.

The geologists are of the view that the present Mediterranean Sea was a dry land in the Palaeolithic Age except the area occupied by few lakes. During this period Europe, Asia and Africa were not separated from each other and the earliest men wandered freely from one continent to the other.

3 Tools and Implements. The life of the primitive man was neither so easy nor so safe. He was surrounded by huge and powerful wild beasts. But he had two advantages over other animals. He had hands and a brain. He used them to exploit nature, to fight his enemies and to procure food and to guard himself from the attacks of wild beasts. He made use of hard stones for making different kinds of tools and implements. His early tools were rough, crude in shape and unpolished. At first he chipped stones into pointed weapons by striking one against the other. His chief tool was the fist-hatchet, an almond shaped stone about six inches long, three inches wide and one inch thick. It had one sharpened edge. It could be used as an axe, hammer, knife, scraper or dagger. With the passage of time he made many improvements in his tools. At first he used stone to make his tools, but later on bone, horn and ivory tools etc appeared. The bow and arrow, wooden clubs and other tools, helped him to lead a comfortable life.



Palaeolithic Tools

4. **Food.** The primitive man led an unsettled life. He was a hunter and a wanderer. He wandered hither and thither in search of food. He was not a food-producer. Cultivation of land was unknown to him. In the beginning he lived on wild fruits and roots. He enjoyed honey from the bee-hives. By and by he started hunting small animals for food. Later on he started hunting bigger animals like the bear, horse, tiger and the elephant etc. His superior brain helped him to hunt such wild animals. Sometimes, he hunted big and ferocious animals in the company of other men. Sometimes, he dug ditches and covered them with leaves to entrap strong animals and to catch them when they fell into those ditches. He also killed birds with the help of stones or sticks. He also fished in the rivers and lakes.

5. **Clothing.** The primitive man wandered naked like animals because he had no clothes and again he did not feel the need of covering his body because of the prevailing hot weather. But the increasing cold later on forced him to cover his body. In the earliest stage he covered his body with leaves and tree-barks. Later on he learnt the use of skins and hides of those animals which he hunted to cover his body and to keep himself warm. Later on he invented the needle and learnt to sew skins for clothing. But still his clothes consisted of mere wraps only.

6. **Dwellings or Shelter.** The life of the primitive man was really very hard. He had no fixed dwellings. The art of building cottages and houses was not known to him. He had to live in groves of trees or in caves to save himself from wild animals. His life in caves was not comfortable and safe. There was darkness in the caves and sometimes ferocious animals like bears, tigers also attacked him in caves. But with the invention of fire his life in caves became somewhat more secure. He was now no longer afraid of wild animals whom he could frighten away with the help of fire.

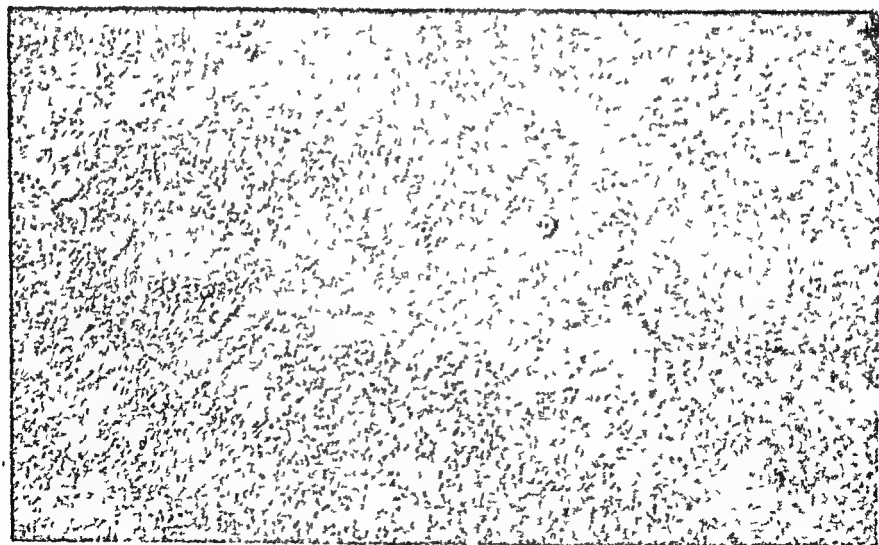
7. **Discovery of Fire.** Discovery of fire is the most wonderful achievement of the primitive man and the most important discovery since the world began. Man had of course, known and feared fire from the very beginning. The primitive men might have seen fire in the terrible volcanoes and the fearsome lightning storms. Dreadful fires must also have raged among the dried trees of the forests. But he did not know to utilise the fire for his own good. But, one day, some of them might, have found the roasted meat of wild animals caught in the fire and found to his astonishment that the roasted meat was more pleasant than the raw-one. He might have also seen animals dreading the fire and running away from the heat of the fire. By such experiences he came to know of the utility of fire for light and protection from the wild animals and also for cooking food. But as yet he did not know how to make fire. But at length men also learnt, perhaps by rubbing two sticks together among dried twigs, perhaps by striking two flints together to make sparks and kindle fires which they themselves could control and use.

Fire brought many new benefits to the primitive men. With its help they were able to frighten off the fierce animals and to eat and

sleep freely. They then need not dread the darkness of night. It lighted their caves, kept them warm and saved them from severe cold in the winter season. They were now able to harden the tips of their wooden spears and to make better weapons for hunting. They also found that the flesh of animals tasted much better when roasted in the fire. Gradually, the primitive man learnt the art of cooking. The use of fire made a considerable change in the life of early man. It made his life secure, comfortable and pleasant. The discovery of fire, is thus regarded as an important stage in the advancement of man towards culture and civilization.

8. Art. As already discussed, the life of the primitive man was very hard. Much of his time was spent in finding food and shelter for himself. But in his leisure hours he covered the walls of the caves with paintings. Forms of animals were painted on the walls of the caves or engraved on tools and weapons. The representation of the human form was a later development. The male figure was portrayed as nude, while female forms were shown wearing skirts made of skins of animals. These paintings are really beautiful and artistic.

Paintings of the Palaeolithic period can still be seen in the caves of northern Spain and Southern France. Cave Paintings of Altamira in Spain and Lascaux in France are famous all over the world.



A Bear from the Caves of Altamira

There are paintings of large, shaggy, bull-like bison, wild bears, wild horses and other wild animals on the walls of the caves of Altamira. They are really very artistic. Some seemed as if moving about, others were lying curled as if asleep. They used red, yellow, blue and violet colours in these paintings.

J. E. Neilson, in appreciation of these paintings, writes, "*The red, blue, yellow and violet colours gleamed as if new, though 20,000 years may have passed since the pictures were made and the man who made them vanished*". Similar paintings have been discovered in the caves of Lascaux. All such paintings throw a good deal of light on the artistic achievements of Palaeolithic man.

The engravings of animals like bulls, horses and hunters on the tools and weapons are also really praise-worthy and they reveal the artistic skill of the primitive man. The decoration of the handles of hunting tools with animals was perhaps done with the belief that it would facilitate the hunting of those animals.

They also produced images and statues of clay, stone and ivory and engraved beautiful pictures on them. The shape, size and colouring of some statues are really very remarkable and wonderful.

These artistic achievements of the primitive men, no doubt, reveal a marked cultural advancement.

9. Dancing. The art of dancing occupied an important place in the life of the primitive man. It is generally believed that he had not gained the power of speech as yet. So he expressed his inner feelings and emotions through dancing. He danced on various occasions for various purposes. He danced to arouse passions, to fight or to celebrate his victory. He danced because it provided him a source of enjoyment. He considered dancing as a religious act to please gods. He danced for invoking supernatural help for his protection. He danced for the reproduction of his own species. He had also his funeral dance. It is generally believed that magic and religion inspired the early dancers.

10. Speech. The earliest man could not speak but later on he learnt to communicate with others through throaty noises. These noises were refined and regulated and ultimately man developed the power of speech. The Peking Man and the men belonging to later period could speak and talk but the vocabulary at this stage was very limited. The Cro-Magnon Man, however, had an enlarged vocabulary. He was in a position to convey his experiences, knowledge and thoughts to others. Thus we can say that the Palaeolithic Man had gained the power of speech.

11. Religion and Faith. The primitive man led an animal-like life. But later on he developed religious beliefs and practices, which he followed with great faith.

(1) *Ancestor Worship.* Ancestor worship is a very ancient wide-spread religious practice, perhaps the most ancient of all. He wanted to please his ancestors lest they might prove an obstacle in his way. He could never think that his ancestors had left him for ever.

(2) *Faith in Magic and Charms.* The primitive man was ignorant and conservative. He believed in magic and charms. He

was afraid of lightning, thunder-storms, earthquakes etc. He believed that they had evil spirits. According to J.E. Swain, fear controlled many of the actions of the primitive man because he found himself helpless before these mighty powers, so he took refuge in magic and charms. He tried to appease them for his own safety. The same very aim was hidden behind dancing and in making of images and statues etc.

(3) *Disposal of the Dead* The Palaeolithic man buried his dead. Tools and food were also placed near the dead body. It cannot be definitely said why these things were put near the dead bodies. According to John Conrad Appie "*These men carefully buried their dead in protected graves, with such tools as they thought might be needed in the next world*". Perhaps they believed in the life after death. The concept of soul was implied in the belief of life after death. Sometimes they sprinkled red powder on the dead body. Perhaps by doing so they tried to bring the dead back to life again.

12 Origin of Social and Political Feelings The primitive man was a hunter and a wanderer. He did not lead a settled and organized life in a family. He had to live amidst wild animals. It was very difficult for him to fight against such ferocious animals all alone. At the same time he needed the help of others to hunt big animals. So security of life forced him to live with other men and by slow degrees he learnt to live an orderly life. The strongest man in the group became their chief.

Regarding the importance of Palaeolithic Culture J.E. Swain says, "*In the long years of the Old Stone Age, man acquired many of the basic characteristics that made progress possible. He made tools, controlled fire and fashioned clothing and shelters. He developed a social order, law, justice and religion. He produced art, told stories and played games*".

SECTION 4—NEOLITHIC OR THE NEW STONE AGE

To make progress is the natural tendency of man. After many centuries the primitive man advanced towards a civilized and cultured life and entered a new age known as the Neolithic Age' or 'The New Stone Age' in history. He still used tools and weapons made of stone but they were not crude, rough and unpolished like the tools of the Palaeolithic Age. The tools during this period were properly chipped and polished. Physically, the men of this age were very much like modern men. They had invented new and better ways of doing things and they progressed much more rapidly than those of the people of the Old Stone Age. He profited by the experiences of the earlier cultures and added many new ideas.

1 Duration In the absence of any written records it is difficult to fix the duration of this period, very much, like that of the Old Stone Age. Roughly speaking the archaeologists are of the view that this period approximately lasted from 10,000 B.C to 5,000 B.C.

2 Geography of the Neolithic World The world was assuming its modern shape in the New Stone Age. The Ice Ages had come to an end. The earth finally grew warmer and human life began to change. Europe and many parts of Asia, which were previously covered with snow and ice, now became fit for human habitation. The effect of ice and cold was now limited to certain regions like those of Siberia and Greenland which were situated near the North Pole. The rest of the places witnessed the growth of green grass and plants etc. In this green and fresh world that awaited them, men left their caves to settle there. The Mediterranean regions had also extended vastly. In short the map of the world was assuming something like its present outlines. Likewise the landscape and the flora and fauna were taking on their present characteristics.

3 Domestication of Animals During this period men made revolutionary progress towards the development of civilization. Instead of merely hunting and killing animals for food they began to tame them for their daily use. The dog was the first animal to be domesticated. It was not only a help in hunting but it also proved a good companion and a great protector of the family and the cattle. It was, followed by goat, sheep and other milk animals.

He tamed them for food as well as for milk. Renowned author H.G. Wells give credit to the Neolithic men for having discovered milking. Next he tamed ass, horse, and camel. They were used for riding as beasts of burden. Slowly and slowly the Neolithic Man gathered great herds of domestic animals and led them to pasture. When one grazing ground was exhausted they drove their flocks to other green lands. Thus the Neolithic Man was not only a hunter but also a herdsman.

4. Beginning of Agriculture When the Neolithic men started domestication of animals, they continuously wandered here and there in search of green lands. After centuries of unsettled life some people became more settled and they became farmers and took to agriculture. According to J.E. Swain, "*Perhaps the most wonderful accomplishment of the Neolithic Age was the beginning of agriculture. The transformation from the life of a nomad to that of a farmer is one of the most significant events of the whole history of man*". He learnt agriculture by accident and the credit for this discovery goes to women. The men hunted during the day time while the women gathered wild fruits and roots. Once during the course of her wandering some women saw the birds eating some wild corn and seed. She thought; if the birds could eat wild corn why could not they use it. So they started collecting the wild corn and seeds. After that they began to sow the seeds near their houses. In this way they discovered the art of agriculture about 6,000 B.C. By planting these seeds they found that they were able to get food every year in the same place. So some men were forced to become settlers and make their living by means of agriculture.

The places where men first became settlers were naturally those parts of the world where the soil was rich and well-watered.

man's cultural progress. He developed orderly conditions of society which became the starting point of human civilization and culture. From a savage being he became more civilized and cultured. This was the miracle of agriculture.

5. Art of Pottery. The art of pottery was not known to the Palaeolithic man but the Neolithic man learnt to make clay pots to hold grain because he had begun to lead a settled life now. Then he began to harden claypots by baking in the sun and then in fire. Such pucca earthenware helped him a lot in storing water. It is one of the greatest achievements of Neolithic man. Later on, with the invention of the wheel he began to make various types of pots.

6 Tools and Implements. During this period the tools were no doubt, made of stone but they were remarkably improved. The tools of this period were ground, grooved and polished. They were regular in shape and more effective in use. By grinding and polishing their edges they were made deadlier and sharper.

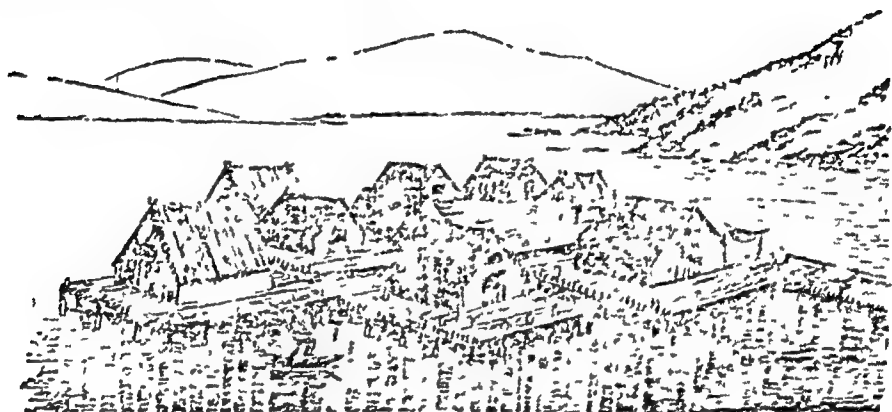
Besides improving tools, the Neolithic men made a vast variety of tools and implements. They fitted them with wooden or bone-handles. Stone axes with wooden handles were undoubtedly a remarkable example of workmanship. He made bows and arrows to hunt animals. Harpoons were also invented for fishing. According to **Will Durant** "*Neolithic inventors slowly improved and extended the tool-chest and armoury of men. Here among the remains are pulleys, levers, grindstones, awls, pincers, axes, hammers, chisels, spindles, looms, sickles, saws, fish hooks, needles, brooches and pins*". Tools were made of stone, flint and even ivory. The bone needles of this age are much superior to those of later and even historical times.

7. Dress. When the Neolithic man started cultivation and tamed animals he simultaneously learnt weaving and spinning of cloth. **J. E. Swain** says, "*Instead of depending entirely on skins Neolithic man used flax and wool from which to produce threads for weaving his cloth.*" He took hint from the spider's web and learned the art of weaving cloth. The women used bone needles to sew cloth into simple garments. Though the cloth was in no way superior to modern gunny cloth yet it saved him from the cold of winter. The women also wore ornaments made of stone, shell and bones. They decorated their hair in many ways. Man's dress consisted of a piece of cloth round his loins and another piece round his shoulders. While a woman wore a petty-coat reaching upto her knees.

8. Food. As stated above, the Neolithic man had invented agriculture and had begun to domesticate animals like cow, sheep, goat etc. He ate fruits, vegetables, wheat, rice, barley, flesh of animals, fish, milk and milk products like curd and ghee. His food was both tasteful and nourishing. Honey was his favourite dish.

9 Dwellings. When man took to agriculture and settled at one place he had to leave caves and live in cottages in the plains,

near his fields. In the beginning these cottages were made of leaves and branches of the trees. They had thatched roofs which were covered with skins of animals. The walls were plastered with mud. Sometimes the walls were made of pieces of stone and mud. In order to have durable cottages, he at first, used unbaked bricks but later on he made walls of baked bricks and the roofs were also mud-plastered. A tall fence was erected round his cottage or house for protection from the wild animals.



Lake Dwellings in Switzerland

Sometimes he built his hut in the midst of lakes for better protection from the attacks of wild beasts and rival tribes. He struck long poles into the lake, built a platform over these poles and erected his hut on this platform. These cottages were connected with the shore by a removable bridge. The remains of such lake cottages were found in Switzerland in 1854. Lake dwellings have also been discovered in Italy, France, Russia, Scotland and North America. In the words of H G Wells "*These lake villages had considerable defensive value and there was sanitary advantages in living over flowing water*"

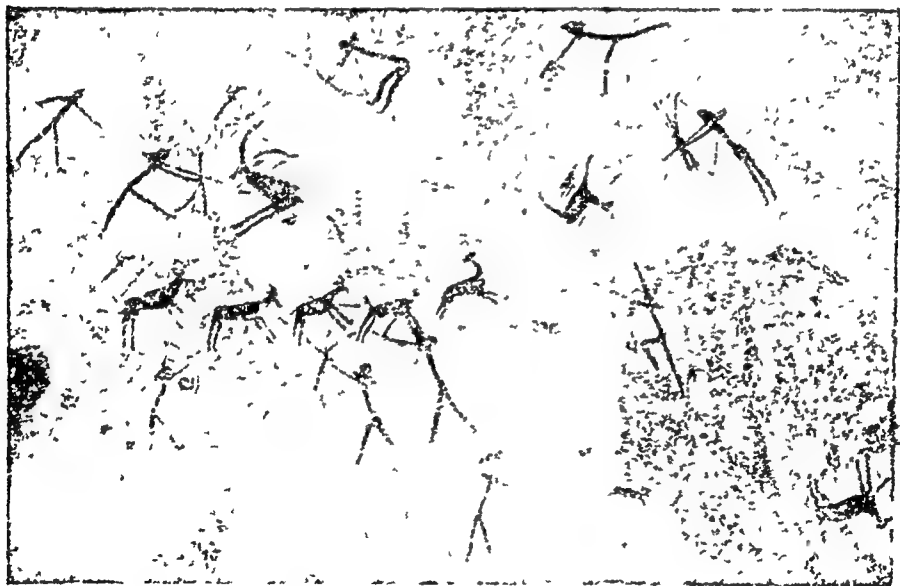
The man of this period made dugouts or boats made by hollowing out the trunks of trees or by burning out the centre of the long logs. They were the world's first boats. They were used to reach the shore from the lake cottages or to go from one place to another by the river.

10. Invention of the Wheel. The invention of the wheel is regarded as an important event in history and a remarkable achievement of the Neolithic man. It accelerated the progress of civilization. It has been rightly said that without the wheel today's civilization would have been impossible.

The invention of the wheel brought about a revolution in the life of a man. The wheel was used for making carts which facilitated the transportation of goods and men from one place to another. The potters used wheel to produce a vast variety of pots. It also revolutionized the art of spinning. In short, we can say that the

wheel could roll a vehicle, shape a pot, turn a spindle and work as a pulley. The invention of the wheel is considered as a great landmark in the history of mankind. A writer has rightly remarked, "*Just imagine our modern machinery of all kinds without the wheel! The inven'or of the wheel was, indeed, the greatest accelator of progress. He was the father of transport. The increased production brought about by agriculture would have glutted the home of the Neolithic man, had he not found the means of carting away the surplus. Just agriculture had taught the members of a Neolithic family to co-operate among themselves, the wheeled vehicle increased intercourse between different settled communities*"

11. Art. Though the Neolithic man was not so artistic as the Paleolithic man, yet there are evidences to show his interest in painting, in making statues and in singing. A great variety of paintings of men, women and animals have been discovered at various places. Hunters have been shown hunting with a bow and arrow in a painting found at Valencia in Spain. A woman has been shown gathering honey in another painting of Spain.



Pre-historic Paintings from a Cave in Valencia, Spain

Statues of men and women made of stone and ivory have also been found. Images of Mother Goddess have been discovered in large number. The Neolithic man had invented the instruments of singing such as bone-whistles, reed-pipes, drums and cymbals.

12. Religion. Neolithic man had developed certain religious beliefs, an account of which is given below—

(1) *Nature Worship*: The Neolithic man realized the importance of various forces of nature and began to worship them. After taking

to agriculture he came to know of the usefulness of the earth, water and the sun which gave him life. So he began to worship them in the shape of Mother Goddess, Water God and Sun God. An unusual



Stonehenge from the Air

monument of this age has been discovered at Stonehenge in England. It was made of stone-slabs arranged in a circle with their tops spanned by horizontal slabs. Inside this circle a horse-shoe is formed with other stones around a flat boulder which was used as an altar. It was used as a temple to worship the Sun-God. Regarding this the well renowned historian **H.A. Davies** says, "*Sun-worship was probably the predominant idea and Stonehenge may be the ruins of a great temple dedicated to the worship of the Sun God.*" Similar other monuments have been found at various other places. They were used as temples and open-air meeting places for religious ceremonies.

(2) *Faith in Magic and Charms.* The Neolithic men had faith in magic and charms. They used amulets, beads, sacred threads etc. for keeping away the evil spirits. They believed that by doing so they can kill their enemies, bring rain and treat diseases. So their life was dominated by mystical practices which gave rise to a priestly class which performed religious ceremonies to propitiate or to get the favour of gods. These priests were feared and respected and they enjoyed special rights and position in the society.

(3) *Human and Animal Sacrifice.* The men of this age offered fruits, flowers and food to secure the blessings of their gods. Human and animal sacrifices were also made to pacify the anger of the deities, to secure good harvests, to avert or end pestilence, and to celebrate victory over enemies in war.

(4) *Ancestor Worship* Ancestor worship was another important feature of the religion of this age. Men living in this age believed

that the influence of the head of the family did not end at his death. To avoid his wrath it was considered necessary to worship him after his death.

(5) *Disposal of the Dead* The people of this age buried their dead. They performed many burial ceremonies and placed many things near the dead body. It indicated their belief in life after death. They had also started erecting tombs and monuments known as 'Dolmen' over the dead bodies.

13. Social and Political Life The Paleolithic man led a life of a wanderer. So it was not possible for him to lead a settled life in a family. But the Neolithic man took to agriculture and began to lead an orderly, settled and organized life in a family. The head of the family was responsible for conducting its affairs. He was obeyed and respected by the other members of the family. We see the seeds of the government in the family. Aristotle considers family as a small state.

With the increase in the members of a family it was further divided into a large number of families with the passage of time. These families combined together to form a clan. Various clans united to form a tribe. Every tribe had its chieftain, who wielded the absolute authority over his tribe. He enforced peace and order within the tribe and was its leader in peace and war. So we notice that the people of the Neolithic Age had developed an elaborate political organization.

Conclusion. From the above description it is quite clear that the Neolithic man made improvement in every sphere of life. Agriculture, domestication of animals and settled life helped him to make advancement towards civilization and culture. In this connection Professor Will Durant observes, "*In one sense, all human history hinges upon two revolutions : the neolithic passage from hunting to agriculture and the modern passage from agriculture to industry. Man was a food gatherer or hunter before he became a food-producer or agriculturist. Neolithic man made a great step towards settled habits of life. Before that time man lived entirely on animal flesh, wild fruits etc. He used to wander from one place to another. Now he settled with greater permanence in one place and cultivated grain, beans and fruits. The transformation from the life of a nomad to that of a farmer is one of the most significant event in the whole history of man.*" About the importance of the Neolithic culture J.E Swain also says, "*The period that marked the introduction of plant cultivation, of the domestication of animals, and of the domestic crafts and arts may be aptly described as the first great age of progress.*"

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

1. Sources of Pre-historical Period. (1) Pre-historic tools and weapons (2) Pre-historic fossils of men and animals (3) Paintings, statues and images

2. Origin and Evolution of Man. (1) The making of earth. (2) Origin of man—speck of jelly in sea; frogs, toads and fish; Appearance of reptiles, about seventy million years ago; birds; mammals; Then appearance of monkeys and ape-like men about five lacs years ago.

3. The Evolution of Man. (1) Java Man 5 lacs years ago, (2) The Peking Man also 5 lacs years ago (3) Heidelberge Man about 3 lacs years ago (4) The Piltdown Man, a mere fraud (5) the Neanderthal Man in Germany about 100,000 years ago (6) The Cro-Magnon Man about 35,000 years ago; he resembled the modern man the most.

4. The Paleolithic Age Division of Pre-historic period into Paleolithic Age and Neolithic Age on the basis of the construction of tools. (1) *Duration* 500,000 to 15,000 years ago (2) *Geographical Conditions*—Four Ice Ages and various changes (3) *Tools and implements* of stone—crude, rough and unpolished (4) *Food* consisted of wild roots and fruits and flesh of animals hunted by him (5) *Clothing*—covered his body with leaves and branches of trees in the beginning but later on with skins of animals. (6) *Shelter*—lived in groves of trees and caves as a wanderer. (7) *Discovery of Fire*—It was an important step towards civilization (8) *Art*—Drawing, Painting, carving, engraving and image making. (9) *Dancing*. (10) *Power of Speech*. (11) *Religion and Faith*—Ancestor-worship, Faith in magic and charms, Disposal of the dead. (12) *Origin of Social and Political life*.

5. The Neolithic Age. (1) *Duration* 10,000 B.C. to 5,000 B.C. (2) *Geography of the world*. Ice Ages came to an end and the world assumed something like the present shape. (3) *Domestication of animals*. (4) *Beginning of Agriculture* made him lead a settled life, from a wanderer and a food-hunter he became a food-producer. (5) *Art of Pottery* (6) *Tools and implements* were beautifully made and polished and sharpened. (7) *Dress* Learnt weaving and spinning and covered his body with cloth (8) *Food* consisted of fruits, vegetables, cereals, milk and milk-products, flesh and fish. (9) *Dwellings*. He lived in huts and lake dwellings. (10) *Invention of wheel* facilitated transport, improved art of pottery and spinning. (11) *Art*, Painting Drawing, making of, statues and singing (12) *Religion*. Nature-worship, faith in magic and charms, Human and animal sacrifice, Ancestor worship, Disposal of the dead. (13) *Social and Political life*. He lived a settled life in a family, development of clans and tribes and political organizations.

University and other Important Questions

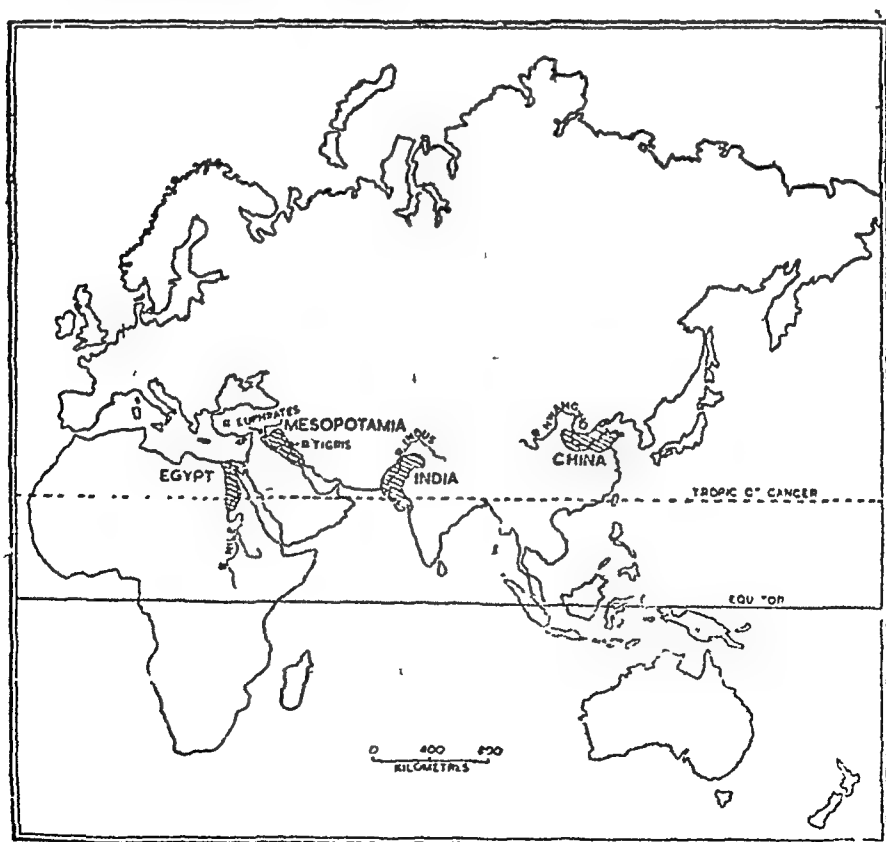
1. When and how was the earth created ?
2. How was the life evolved and what was its earliest form ?
3. What are the chief sources of the World History ?
4. Trace the various stages in the development of man. What are the earliest evidences that we have in this connection ?
5. Trace the progress made by man in the pre-historic age. What inventions do you think, brought about revolutionary changes in his life ?

6. What is pre-history ? What are its sources ? What are the essential features of human life during pre-history ? ---
 7. Sketch the way of the life of Neolithic man. In what significant respects was the Neolithic Age an advance on Paleolithic Age ? (B.U. 1961)
 8. Compare the life of the Palaeolithic man with that of the Neolithic man and bring out the achievements of man during the Stone Age. (B.U. 1957)
 9. Describe the life of Early Man in the New and Old Stone Ages. (U.U. 1963)
 10. What do you understand by pre-historic times ? What were the changes and developments of the Neolithic Age (B.U. 1966)
 11. How far the Neolithic people were advanced than the Paleolithic people. (All India Hr. Sec., 1969)
 12. Write in ten lines what you know about the following :—
 - (1) Sources of pre-historic times.
 - (2) In what respect Cro-Magnon man was superior to Neanderthal man?
 - (3) What do you know about the origin of the man ?
 - (4) Geography of the world in Paleolithic Age.
 - (5) Importance of the invention of fire.
 - (6) Importance of the invention of agriculture.
 - (7) "The invention of wheel brought about a revolution ?" How ?
 - (8) Compare the tools and implements of Paleolithic Age with those of the Neolithic Age.
 13. Answer the following questions in 'Yes' or 'No'
 - (1) The Palaeolithic man used metal tools
 - (2) Agriculture was invented in Neolithic Age
 - (3) The remains of the Heidelberge Man were discovered in Germany.
 - (4) The paintings of Altamira throw light on the artistic skill of the Neolithic man.
 - (5) Lake-dwellings were found in Jordan.
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Ancient Civilization of Egypt

SECTION 1 RIVER VALLEY CIVILIZATIONS

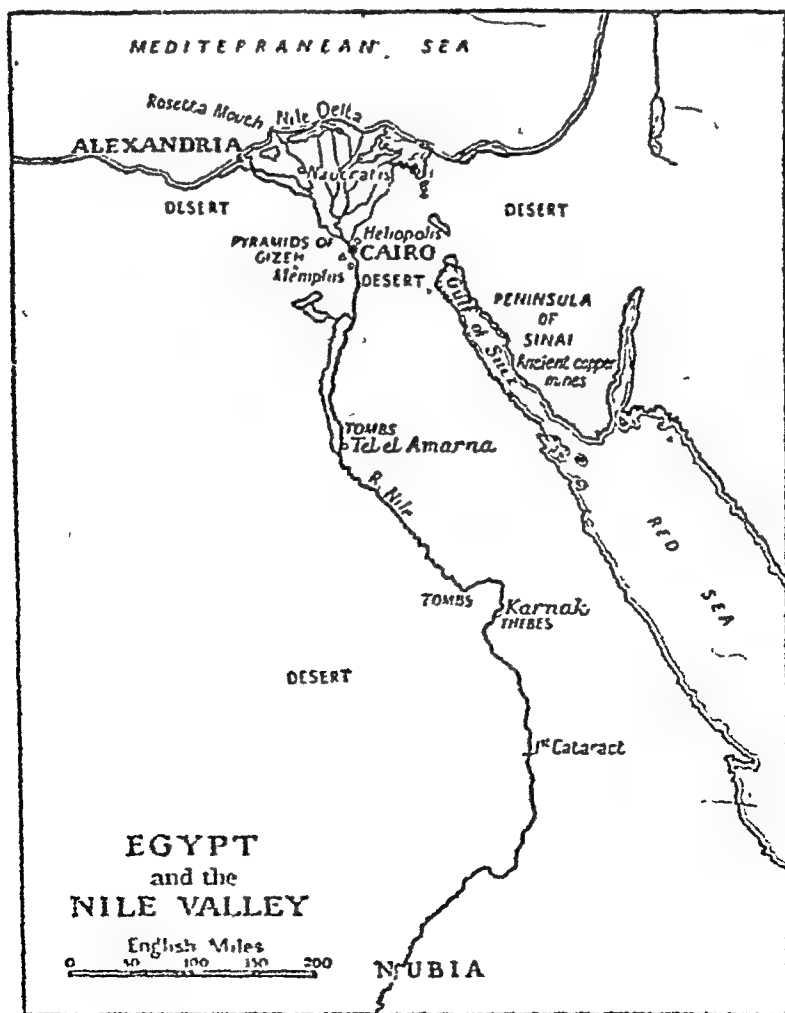
River Valley Civilizations. The early man was savage and led a nomadic life. He wandered here and there in search of new pastures for his cattle. He lived an unsettled life. But with the passage of time he took to agriculture and began to live an orderly and settled life. Gradually he advanced towards a civilization and made rapid progress in various fields of life. This progress in science, art, literature and culture etc. was possible only when he settled permanently in the river valleys.



Different River Valley Civilizations

The study of history shows that important civilizations of the world flourished in the river valleys. There were various reasons for it. (1) Man could find water from the rivers for irrigation. (2) The soil near the rivers was rich and fertile. The annual floods in the rivers made the soil productive. (3) Man could get drinking water easily for himself and his cattle. (4) He got mud from the river-side to build his huts and to make unbaked bricks. (5) He could get food by fishing and hunting different types of animals and birds. (6) The climate in the river valleys was warm, pleasant and congenial for human-settlement. (7) The rivers provided a better means of communication. It was easier to go from one place to another by rivers. These various factors encouraged people to settle in the river valleys and try to improve their way of living. Some of the ancient civilization of the world such as those of Egypt, Mesopotamia, Indus Valley and China flourished in the river valleys of the Nile, Euphrates and Tigris, Indus and the Yangtse respectively.

SECTION 2. NILE-VALLEY CIVILIZATION



It is generally believed that the oldest civilization about which we have any systematic record, flourished in Egypt. Even today huge pyramids, the mysterious Sphinx, ruins of temples, tombs, furniture, grain, clothing and even human bodies are found well preserved there. They enable the archaeologists to determine the antiquity, i.e. date of this civilization and also to fit in its chronology which is so important for the student of history.

River Nile played an important part in the development of the Egyptian civilization. The soil and climate of the Nile Valley were very conducive to human progress. The river Nile makes the land fertile and the farmers can grow crops on the same fields year after year. They also learnt to store water for use in dry season by digging canals and dykes and making reservoirs. The climate was warm, but it was not too hot for plant and animal life to thrive in. The Nile served as a highway and made navigation possible. The rich soil and warm climate helped the growth of civilization. That is why both Egypt and the Egyptian civilization is called the *Gift of Nile*.

Another factor which helped the progress of civilization in Egypt was its geographical conditions. It was surrounded on all sides by strong natural barriers. To the north was the Mediterranean Ocean, to the south were the Sudanese forests, to the west the barren Sahara and to the east were the rocky wastes; so Egypt was beyond the reach of any foreign invaders. Consequently, the Egyptians led an isolated and peaceful life which was very conducive to the growth of civilization.

Racially, the Egyptians were a mixture of different tribes and belonged to the Mediterranean race. They built an amazing and remarkable civilization.

1. Political History of the Civilization of Ancient Egypt.

Professor Flinders Petrie considers that Egyptian civilization is as old as 10,000 B.C. but systematic records of this civilization are available only since 3,600 B.C. The period from 3,400 B.C. to 332 B.C. is known as the 'Dynastic period' in the History of Egypt when about 31 dynasties ruled over Egypt. In the Pre-dynastic period (or the period before 3,400 B.C.) the wandering pre-historic people of Northern Africa came with their cattle in the valley of Nile. They conquered the ancient dwellers and made their permanent homes in the valley and began to cultivate the land. They organised themselves first in families and later on in tribes. Each tribe had its own chief. A small town or city was the centre of each tribe. So there grew up many city-states in Egypt. The city state type of government was the most important contribution of the Egyptians to the world.

The tribes often fought with one another and gradually the stronger tribes conquered the weaker. Until 4,000 B.C. there were two main chiefs, the king of the North who ruled over the people of the Delta, and the king of the South who ruled over the people of upper Nile. Finally about 3,400 B.C. a single strong man, named Menes, made himself the king of both the parts. He was the first king

or the Pharaoh of Egypt. With Menes began the history of the great nation of ancient Egypt which was ruled by 31 royal houses upto 332 B.C. This long period has been divided into four Periods or Ages.

(1) *The Pyramid Periods, 3,400 to 2,500 B.C.* Well-defined Egyptian history really began with Menes (3 400 B C) who united the two kingdoms of the north and south Egypt into a strong empire. He was the first king of the first ruling dynasty of Egypt. He built a beautiful city, the first city in the world, later on called Memphis, and made it his capital. Egypt progressed much during the reigns of the first four Royal Dynasties that followed Menes. These early Egyptian rulers or Pharaohs were absolute rulers but they governed well and did much to make the people happy and prosperous. They encouraged various arts and Egypt grew rich and powerful under their benevolent rule. The outstanding accomplishment of this period was the construction of a Sphinx and quite a good number of Pyramids. The next six dynasties were not so powerful and famous and consequently in about 2500 B.C. the power slipped into the hands of the Feudal Lords.

(2) *The Feudal Age, 2500 to 1580 B.C.* This period was a period of chaos and foreign invasions in the History of Egypt. The noblemen rose against the kings and established their petty states. They always fought with one another. As a result of this, the once mighty Egypt became, weaker and weaker and there prevailed disorder and chaos in the kingdom. However, Egypt did make some material progress during this period. Dikes, canals, public works and commercial fleets were made.

In about 2,000 B.C., wandering people of Asia called the Hyksos, invaded Egypt and established their domination over the Egyptians. They ruled over the land for more than 100 years. Their kings were called the "Shepherd Kings". These invaders brought horses and chariots to Egypt for the first time. They also introduced military system in the country. The Hyksos were very cruel and were hated by the Egyptians. The Egyptians rose against them under the leadership of a Pharaoh named Kamose and drew them out of their country by 1580 B.C. In this way the Feudal Age came to an end.

(3) *The Imperial Age, 1580 to 1150 B.C.* Kamose, a descendant of the royal family, restored kingship in Egypt about 1580 B.C. With him began the period known as the Imperial Age. During this period the power and glory of Egypt reached its highest point. Thutmose I (1545—1514), the first great king of this period, was a descendant of the 18th Dynasty. He shifted his capital to a new city called Thebes, situated to the south of Memphis. He organised a strong central government by reducing the powers of the noblemen. Queen Hatshepsut (1501 to 1479 B.C.), the daughter of Thutmose I, was one of the earliest famous rulers of this time. She was the first woman ruler in history. She was more interested in building great temples and developing commerce than in fighting wars. The Great Temple of Luxor was the most beautiful and famous of all her

temples. She beautified the city of Karnak and rebuilt the Karnak Temple destroyed by Hyksos. In one of her inscriptions she says—

"I have restored that which was in ruins,"

I have raised up that which was unfinished."

Her husband, **Thutmose III**, succeeded her and ruled from 1479. to 1447 B.C. He was the greatest of warlike Pharaohs and a great conqueror of his age. He was called the "Napoleon of Ancient Egypt". He raised a powerful fleet and established his domination over a vast territory extending from the Nile to the river Euphrates. He also conquered the kingdoms of Palestine, Syria, Phoenicia, Alasia and Sudan. Though he was a great warrior and conqueror yet he also was a great admirer of art and beauty.

Another famous ruler, who ruled over Egypt after Thutmose III, was **Amenhotep III**. He ruled from 1411 to 1375 B.C. During his reign Egypt was at the height of her glory and prosperity. He was followed by his son **Amenhotep IV** who ruled from 1375 to 1358 B.C. He was an idealist and tried to introduce various religious reforms. He preached monotheism. He wanted that instead of worshipping so many gods people should worship only one god i.e. the sun-god whom he called Aton. That is why he assumed the name of Akhnaton. He constructed a new city named Telle Amarna, and made it his capital. His reforms were however, cancelled by his descendant and son-in-law **Tutenkhamen**. He shifted his capital again to Thebes. The rule of the 18th dynasty was, however, dismembered by 1350 B.C.

After this the kings of the 19th dynasty kept the reigns of the government in their hands from 1350 to 1150 B.C. **Ramases II** (1300—1234 B.C.) was the greatest king of this dynasty. He built various temples and monuments and succeeded in restoring the lost military glory and prestige of Egypt. But after his death none of his descendants could maintain the glory of the empire and soon it headed towards its decline and downfall. By about 1150 B.C., the conquered lands of the empire were lost, one by one and its greatness also faded away.

(4) *The Period of Decline, 1150-332 B.C.* After 1150 B.C. the rulers from 20th to 31st dynasties proved weak and inefficient and then Egypt began to decline rapidly. She had to suffer humiliating under defeats at the hands of Assyria (673 B.C.) and Babylonia (653 B.C.) In 525 B.C., the Persians conquered Egypt and an independent and united Egypt ceased to exist. In 332 B.C., Alexander the Great invaded and conquered Egypt and annexed it to his empire. After that Egyptians had to live for centuries in bondage or under the domination of a foreign rule.

2. **Government or Administrative System** The king of the land, called Pharaoh, was an absolute ruler. He was an autocrat and enjoyed unlimited political and religious powers. He was the supreme judge and the Chief Commander of the army.

He was the law-maker and the religious leader. The government was highly centralized, autocratic and theocratic. The Pharaoh enjoyed absolute power over his subjects. The Pharaohs were considered gods on this earth and the people used to worship them. Even the greatest nobles bowed before them and kissed the ground where they had walked. He enjoyed Divine Rights of Kings. It has been rightly remarked about him "*The king was regarded as a God, who possessed the power of life and death over the whole of Egypt and his will was the only law*". He was the sole master and lord of the land. The people took no part in the political activities of the state.

There were many nobles and high officials who advised the Pharaoh and helped him to carry on the administration smoothly. The king was, however, not bound by their advice. They executed the laws framed by the king and carried out his will.

For the better running of the government, the whole country had been divided into various administrative units called 'Nomes' numbering about 50. Each Nome was placed under an official known as Nomarch. He was appointed by the king and could be deposed by him at any time. All the officials were responsible to him.

The administration of justice was efficient and was based on the principle of equality. The king made laws and saw that they were carried out and obeyed. The cases were decided within three days according to the laws of the land. The culprits were given severe punishments. The king was the supreme judge and the final court of appeal.

Though the Pharaoh was an absolute ruler and an autocrat yet he acted as a *benevolent despot* and looked to the welfare of his subjects. He was the supervisor of public works and the director of industries. He had the charge of irrigation system. He built dykes, dams and canals etc for the irrigation of the land. He constructed various roads for providing better means of communication. He gave all facilities to farmers, workers and merchants and encouraged agriculture, industry and commerce. There is no doubt that some of the Pharaohs acted in a tyrannical way, and took forced labour to construct temples, pyramids and places.

Agriculture-tax, tolls and fines etc. were the main sources of income. In the beginning the taxes were paid in kind i.e. in the form of corn and flax. During the Imperial Age when the currency came into existence the taxes could be paid either in cash or in kind. The money so realized was spent in building temples and pyramids etc and in the construction of works of public utility.

3 Social Life. Society in Egypt was divided into three well-defined classes. The higher, the middle and the lower class.

The *higher class* consisted of the royal family, nobles and priests. They held vast estates and high positions in the court and

enjoyed special rights and privileges. They were not only wealthy but also very powerful. They led a luxurious life in beautiful houses. Often the walls and floors of such mansions were painted with pictures of trees and flowery-plants and cool marshes, and their ceilings were decorated to look like a starlit sky. Richly carved and inlaid chairs, couches and tables added comfort and beauty. Beautiful chests stored their fine clothings and jewels. Each house had its own garden of flowers. About their houses the renowned historian H A. Davies says, *"The houses of the Egyptian nobles of this time were apparently much more beautiful than modern houses, and to each of them was attached a large garden where the lotus bloomed luxuriantly, and the nobleman could enjoy his leisure with his family and friends, playing draughts or listening to music while the women danced and the children amused themselves by splashing about in the fish pools, or by playing ball, or by teasing a tame donkey. On special occasions the nobles and their wives put on beautiful dresses, ornaments, perfumed wigs and shadowed their eye-lids with black powder called Kohl. In short this class had great wealth and refined tastes."*

The well-to-do ate nourishing food. They enjoyed lavish feasts. Their food consisted of meat, cheese, figs, melons, grapes, dates, milk, beer and wine. They however, never shirked their duties.

The middle class comprised of free landlords, artisans and merchants. They were a peace-loving people and progressed much during the reign of powerful kings. They were engaged in different handicrafts and commerce. They were quite well off though they did not lead an affluent life as the nobles did. They learned to read and write and held government offices.

The lower class consisted of peasants and slaves. They lived in small mud-huts with thatched roofs and dirty floors. They had no furniture. In the cities the huts were built in rows somewhat like army barracks. Life in these huts was as drab as the huts themselves. The children wore no clothing. People belonging to this class ate coarse bread and vegetables such as peas, onions, beans etc. They worked very hard and for long hours to support their families. They often died young due to over-work and poor diet.

The women enjoyed great freedom and held a high position in the society. They had equal rights, before the law, with their husbands. They could hold property, keep it independently and transmit it to their children. They could even hold the reins of the administration. Queen Hatshepsut was the first woman ruler in history. According to V A Renouf *"In no other ancient country were women so well treated, nor was their claim to equal rights again fully revived until quite modern times in the leading western countries."* They valued family life and taught their children to be courteous and respectful. Girls were taught to perform household duties. Early marriage was prevalent in Egypt.

Rouge pots, polished copper mirrors and perfume vials found in the tombs indicate that women belonging to the higher class used

perfumed oils, powders, and paste to look more attractive. They wore white clothes, sometimes, embroidered in beautiful colours. Their clothing was made of linen of fine quality

Swimming and boating on the Nile were their famous amusements. Hunting was also their chief form of recreation. Sometimes in light boats they hunted birds and animals in marshes along the river. At other times they went in groups to the far south to hunt the lion. The children amused themselves by playing with balls and dolls of clay and wood. They enjoyed playing with their pet-animals.

4 **Economic Life.** The main occupation of the people of Egypt was agriculture because the Valley of Nile was very fertile



Egyptian Agriculture

and productive. Cultivation was mostly done by slaves. The Government supervised the work and built dams-dykes, and canals for irrigation. Land revenue was realized from 10 to 20% of the total produce according to the fertility of the soil. They cultivated wheat, barley, peas, beans and onions. They grew fruits and vegetables also. Cotton and flax were grown to make cloth.

Industries and crafts were another important means of earning their livelihood. The construction of pyramids and palaces necessitated a large number of trained craftsmen. Beautifully glazed and painted clay jars, furniture, vessels of gold and silver and jewelry found in the Pyramids of the Pharaohs speak of the high level of craftsmanship of the artisans and craftsmen of that time. Metal workers made tools and other things of copper and bronze. Workmen cut and shaped vessels of stone. Jewellers and goldsmiths made beautiful vases and ornaments. They had attained high excellence in shaping both the metal and the stone. The carpenters were famous for the high quality of furniture they made and for their fine carvings and inlay work in wood. Paper-making, weaving, spinning, pottery making, manufacture of leather and ship building were important industries of the Egyptians in ancient times. Fine products of the Egyptian craftsmen reveal their high standard of technique and aesthetic appreciation of beauty.

The Egyptians developed their *trade and commerce* as well. The Nile was the great highway of trade. Boats sailed up and down the Nile. Ships had been invented and trading expeditions were undertaken across the Mediterranean as far as Phoenicia. Land routes were also developed. The Pharaohs sent caravans of donkeys high up the Nile into Sudan to deal with the black people of the south and to bring back gold, ivory, ostrich-feathers, fragrant gums and slaves. Spices, dyes, cosmetics, incense and cedar wood were imported from India and Arabia. The Egyptians constructed the first Suez canal in 1900 B.C. They had connected the river Nile with the Red Sea through another canal. Egypt exported wheat, papyrus, metal goods, cloth, pottery, decorated furniture, ornaments etc. to other countries. At first, exchange of goods was carried on by the barter system but later on they developed gold and silver coins to trade with the foreign countries.

In short, we can say that Egypt developed both agriculture, industry and trade to a great extent. It became a prosperous and affluent country. Consequently she made remarkable advancement towards civilization and culture.

5. Religious Life One of the most remarkable things developed by the people of Egypt was their religion. The Egyptians were polytheistic and worshipped many gods and goddesses. Every district, town or perhaps every village had its own god with a female counter-part and a son and also a devil. It is said that, in all, there were about 2200 deities in Egypt. Each god had temples, priests and special ceremonies connected with his worship. But some of

them were worshipped every where. They were the sun-God (Ra), Osiris, Isis and Horus. The Sun God was considered to be the chief of all gods. He was the creator and sustainer of the world and given of life and warmth. Osiris was the God of the Nile. The Egyptians believed that Osiris had conquered death. He was the king of the other World and the Judge of the dead. Isis was his wife and Horus was his son. 'Set' was the god of evil.

The Egyptians *worshipped some animals and birds* such as the bull, the crocodile, the lion, the cat, the snake and the hawk. They were considered as the representatives of gods. The construction of Sphinx perhaps had this very idea behind it.

The Egyptians *regarded their Pharaohs* as the descendants of Osiris. They were worshipped like gods. The Pharaoh was the head of the religious organisation and the chief priest of the country. He presided over the religious ceremonies and festivals of gods. The priests controlled the temples and helped the people in the performances of religious rites to appease gods and seek their blessings. As a result, the Egyptians became superstitious. They held the priests in high esteem. The priests were a wealthy and powerful class which sometimes did not hesitate to rebel against the kings.

The Egyptians *believed in life after death*, the immortality and transmigration of the soul. They believed that when a person dies, his soul goes to the other world and appears before Osiris, the Judge of the dead. He rewarded the person concerned for his good deeds and punished him for his sins, but after that the soul may come back to the same body. The returning of the soul to the original human body is known as the doctrine of resurrection and is found in Islam and Christianity. So the Egyptians embalmed the dead bodies, buried them and preserved them carefully in the tombs. Such dead bodies were called mummies. Inside the tomb were placed the furniture, clothes and ornaments which the dead person had liked to possess and used in his life time. His favourite foods and drinks were also kept there and sometimes his favourite slaves were also killed and buried with him. All this was done to facilitate the entrance of the soul in the dead-body. The arrangements in respect of kings were really wonderful, elaborate and magnificent. This is probably how the pyramids and cave-tombs of Egypt came into existence. Only recently the dead body of the king Tutankhamen was discovered, well-preserved in a pyramid of Egypt.

Amenhotep IV, who assumed the name of *Akhnaton*, preached *monotheism* and ordered the people to worship one God, named Aton. Aton was another name of the Sun-god but was quite different from 'Ra'. He was kind, mild and humane, and not an object of terror and awe like that of the god 'Ra'. Akhnaton attached no importance to superstitions, idol-worship and useless religious rituals. Flinder Petrie has praised his religious beliefs in the following words, "*No conception that can be compared with this, for scientific accuracy, was reached for at least three thousand years after it.*" The Egyptians

were, however, very superstitious and were not so advanced that they could understand Akhnaton's religious beliefs and doctrines. As a result, old religion was restored in Egypt soon after his death.

6. **Egyptian Arts.** The Egyptians made a wonderful progress in the sphere of different arts especially in architecture, sculpture and painting.

(1) *Architecture* Religion dominated the life of the ancient Egyptians and naturally it had a great influence on their art and architecture. The most wonderful of the ancient buildings are perhaps the pyramids, or the tombs of the Pharaohs. They were the symbols of the religious beliefs of the Egyptians and the power of the Pharaohs. The earliest known example of such stone structures is the pyramid built by Pharaoh Zoser (3150 B.C.). By 3,000 B.C. enormous pyramids were built to preserve the bodies of the dead Pharaohs. Groups of these pyramids, often rising as if pointing to the sun, stretch over many miles along the western bank of the Nile. In one of the chambers was kept the embalmed body of the Pharaoh along with food, clothes and other things used by him during his life-time. In another chamber the priests used to offer sacrifices and perform sacred ceremonies for the benefit of the dead Pharaoh's soul.

The finest and *largest of the pyramids is, at Gizeh*. It is generally known as the 'Great Pyramid'. It was built by a Pharaoh named Khufu in about 3,000 B.C. It occupies 13 acres of land. It is 755 feet long and 484 feet high. It is built of 2,300,000 blocks of stone each weighing about $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons. According to the great historian **Herodotus** it took about 20 years to build this huge building and 1,00,000 men worked on it. It was carefully constructed in correct mathematical proportions. The engineers of this great project were indeed very brilliant. They provided their workmen with all sorts of moving equipments such as rollers, pulleys, levers and ropes. Their measurement was so exact and the blocks of stone were so closely filled that crevices were hard to detect. The tremendous task involved in building a structure of such proportions, without any modern machinery, is a challenge to the civilized man. Use of arch and vaults is most perfectly utilized in this pyramid. Simplicity and massiveness are the chief artistic qualities of this and other pyramids. This Great Pyramid is regarded as the most magnificent tomb in the world and is called as one of the seven wonders of the world.

The Egyptians built *beautiful temples* in honour of their gods. They show the skill of the engineers of that age. The Temple of Karnak built at the ancient city of Thebes was the greatest and the most magnificent of all. It took 2000 years to complete it and many Pharaohs made their contributions in its construction. The Great Hall of Columns, 338 feet wide and 170 feet long, standing on 136 columns and in 16 rows is the unique feature of this temple. In the

central part are 12 massive pillars of stone in two rows. Each pillar is 79 feet high and the capitol is so large that 100 men can stand on it. The pillars and walls are covered with brightly coloured and attractive carvings and paintings. It has been rightly remarked that the Temple of Karnak has been the finest and largest religious structure built in ancient times.

Besides it, the *Ra-Temple* constructed by Pharaoh Heliopolis and the *Temple of Luxor* built by Amenhotep III and the *Temple of Abu Simbel* are known for their beauty and massive structure.



The Sphinx and the Great Pyramid at Gizeh

(2) *Sculpture* The art of the sculpture was also highly developed. The portrait-sculpture was the greatest achievement of this age. The statues were carved in wood or stone and the eyes embellished with rock-crystal. No age has produced more life-like portraits. Permanence and realism were its main features. The sculptors built statues of Pharaohs, about 80 to 90 feet high. Each of these sculptures was cut from a single block of stone. The figures were rigid in posture, but the features were well-cut. The Egyptian sculptors showed excellent craftsmanship in building statues which were partly human and partly animal. The most famous of them is the *Great Sphinx* which lay near the Pyramid of Gizeh. The figure is about 160 feet long and 70 feet high. It is a figure carved out of a solid rock. The body is that of a lion and the head is that of a Pharaoh named Khafu. It is a typical example of Egyptian sculpture and is said to be the largest portrait ever made.

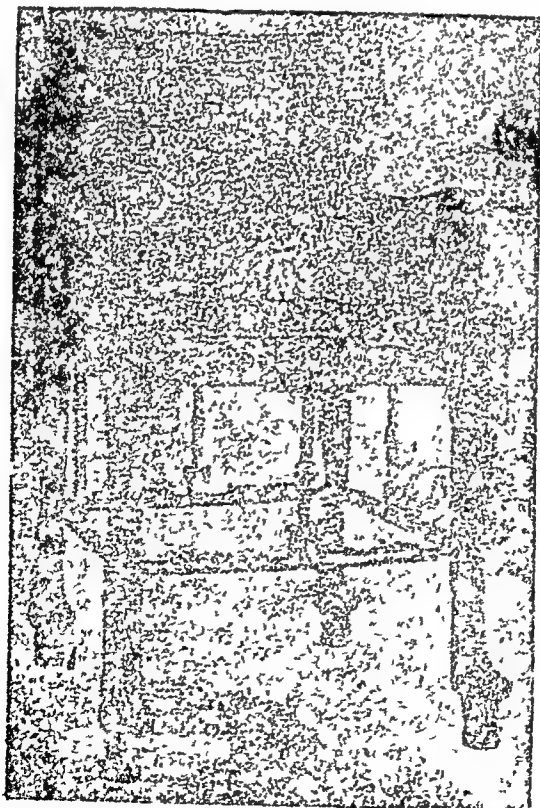
The statues of Akhnaton and his wife Nefertiti are the finest examples of art. About the portrait of Nefertiti it has been rightly said that "*it is perhaps the most life-like portrait in all Egyptian art*".

(3) *Paintings.* The paintings of the Egyptian artists commonly adorned the walls of their temples, tombs and palaces. Men, women, natural scenes etc were the famous objects of painting. They are quite life-like and natural. They give us valuable glimpses of the social, economic and religious life of the people of Egypt. However, the artists have not yet learnt how to use the third dimension to show depth in their paintings. They painted people and animals from a side view only.

(4) *Other Arts* According to J E Swain no description of art could be complete without the mention of household decorations. The most beautiful of all their works was furniture and utensils of various kinds. Chairs were



Queen Nefertiti



Tutankhamen's Arm Chair

covered with gold and silver and fitted with soft leather cushions. The spectators are wonder-struck to see the chair built by Tutenkhamen, which is still preserved in the Museum at Cairo. The paintings of Tutenkhamen and his wife at the back of this chair look very life-like. Beautifully painted clay jars, furniture, vessels of gold and silver and jewellery reveal the artistic skill of the Egyptian artists.

7. Writing, Literature, Science and Education. The Egyptians had made a wonderful progress in the fields of writing, literature, science and education.

(i) *Art of Writing.* To keep their records, the Egyptians, like other ancient peoples, invented writing. According to H. A. Davies "It is possible that the art of writing originated in Egypt." At first they used picture-writing in which each picture stood for a separate word. At least 2,000 picture-signs have been found, engraved on the walls of various monuments of Egypt. Each picture expressed an idea and later on a sound. Then they simplified these signs and invented a 24-letter alphabet which is, perhaps, the earliest known alphabet in the world. It consisted of consonants only and had no vowels. In order to clear the meaning they made pictures instead of vowels. The word given below is an English



Specimen of Hieroglyphic Script of Egypt

word "Lake" which has been written in Egyptian script. First picture presents the consonant 'L' and the second stands for letter 'K'. In order that these consonants may not make the word 'Like' and 'Look' they made the pictures of the waves of lake so that these consonants may convey the sense of the word 'Lake'. This ancient Egyptian writing is known as 'Hieroglyphic' or 'Sacred Writing' because in those days only the priests, who guarded the temples of gods, were skilled in ancient learning and it were they who kept the written records.

At first none could read this script. In 1799 Napoleon invaded Egypt. A French soldier found a large black stone with an inscription on it in two different scripts. One was in Greek which the soldier could read but the other was in Egyptian Hieroglyphic script which by then could not be read by anyone. This stone later on came to be known as the Rosetta Stone. In 1822, however, a French scholar, Champollion by name, was successful in solving this mystery. He was able to read the Egyptian script with the help of the Greek script. This discovery helped us a lot in throwing a good deal of light on the various aspects of the Egyptian life.

At first the Egyptians wrote on stones, walls and clay-tablets but later on they made paper from a kind of reed called 'Papyrus'.

and used it for writing purposes. This reed grew in the marshes along the Nile. These reeds were hollow. The Egyptians cut them open and pressed them into flat strips and pasted them together. Then by pressing and drying these sheets, was produced a smooth rough paper. After writing on these sheets they rolled them into scrolls. These scrolls, generally ranged from 5 to 12 inches in breadth and from 20 to 40 inches in length. One such scroll, about 135 feet long and 17 inches wide, has been preserved in the British Museum. Most probably the English word 'paper' has been derived from the word 'papyrus'.

The Egyptians also invented ink and pen to write on papyrus. They made a kind of ink with the help of gum, water and soot. A pointed reed was used as a pen. They wrote from right to left, like that of the Arabic script. The whole world, undoubtedly, is indebted to the Egyptians for their inventions of paper, pen and ink.

(2) *Literature* The Egyptian literature was predominantly religious in nature. Especially, Gods, and Pharaohs have been praised in it. It also contained instructions for the dead souls. The '*Hymn to the Sun*' which is given below, presents a simple, honest and sincere vision of the God Aton.

"O living Aton, the beginning of life !

When thou risest in the eastern horizon,

Thou fillest every land with thy beauty

Thou are great, beautiful, glittering, high above every land."

"*The Book of the Dead*" consisted of papyrus rolls found in the tombs of ordinary people. It contained instruction-hymns and prayers for the guidance of the dead souls. "*The Coffin Texts*" contained an account of the deeds of the departed Pharaohs.

The Egyptians produced secular literature also. It contained poems, love songs, letters and history, etc. "*The Song of the Harper*, is a jovial drinking song "*The Dialogue between a Man, weary of life and his soul*" is the most artistic and emotional poem. "*The Story of the Deceased Prince*" is a fatalistic story. About 300 letters have also been discovered at Tel el Amarna. They throw a good deal of light on the political and international situation of that age. In this connection H.A. Davies says, "*These letters constitute the oldest international correspondence in existence*"

No great epic or drama was, however, written by the Egyptians. Though they never achieved a complete perfection in literature, yet they made definite progress in this direction and produced the first literature in history.

(3) *Science*. The Egyptians had made wonderful progress in the field of science also. Their achievements in the fields of engineering, astronomy, mathematics and medicine were really remarkable. They were skilful engineers who built massive and magnificent

pyramids, temples, dams, and dykes. They had also acquired the basic knowledge of astronomy and invented a solar calendar. In about 4,236 B.C. they worked out a system of recording time on the basis of the solar system. The Egyptians were the only ancient people to have such a calendar. The year was divided into three seasons. Each season was further divided into four months of 30 days each, making a year of 360 days. But soon they realized, that even by counting a year of 360 days there remained some sort of difficulty so they set aside a period of five days, as a period of feasting. Then the year came to have 365 days as in modern times. This discovery of theirs is one of the most valuable contribution of Egypt to the modern world.

The Egyptians had also acquired good knowledge of *Mathematics* especially Geometry. It stood them in good stead in building massive monuments, dams, dykes and in measuring land. They produced the decimal system, and acquired the knowledge of divide and multiply. They used special signs to represent units, tens, hundreds, thousands, tens of thousands, hundreds of thousands and millions. Their system of fractions was, however, very complicated.

The Egyptians had made note-worthy progress in the *Science of medicine*. Embalming of body helped them to have a knowledge of human anatomy. Their old books contained the names of various diseases and their remedies. They had made much advance in surgery also. A papyrus roll, 15 feet long, dating about 600 B.C. is one of the oldest work on medicine. It describes about 48 cases of clinical surgery.

(4) *Education*. The children of peasants did not receive any education. The sons of the rich, however, received education in schools held in temples. They were taught reading, writing and arithmetic. After getting elementary education, they went to higher schools where they were taught astronomy and religion by the priests. From these schools they were sent to attend a more advanced course conducted by the officials of the treasury. The educational system was supervised and controlled by the government. Learning was prized highly. A teacher's instruction to his pupil advises him, "*Give thy heart to learning and love her like a mother, for there is nothing so precious as learning*".

SECTION 3. CONTRIBUTION OF EGYPTIANS TO THE WORLD CIVILIZATIONS

No other country of the world has had a long history as that of Egypt. From the invention of the calendar to the conquest of Egypt by Rome, more than 42 centuries passed. During this period Egypt built a glorious history for which we owe her much. Many things, which the early Egyptians gave to the world, have no doubt later been greatly improved, but the Egyptians were the first to think of them. The Egyptians were the first people in the world to march towards, what in the modern times we call, civilization. The Egyptians have left a rich legacy to the world. The Jews, Syrians, Phoenicians, Cretans, Greeks and Romans learned much from the

Egyptians. They made improvements in them and passed them on to the coming generations.

In the words of J.E. Swain, we can conclude—*“Compared with modern standards, the civilization of the Egyptians may not be impressive, but one should not forget that they were pioneers, originators of civilization. They fell short of actual perfection, but they were practical originators. They set civilization on its way after a period of long struggle. The people of Egypt decidedly raised themselves above barbarians and lived gracefully and joyously. The Hebrews, the Phoenicians and the Greeks were all students of Egyptian culture and borrowed much from it. Writing, science, architecture, literature and religion were all started on the road to progress by the ancient Egyptians, who passed on to successive civilizations a priceless heritage”*

The world is indebted to Egypt for the following contributions :—

- (1) They were the first to march towards civilization.
- (2) They laid the foundation of centralized government.
- (3) Their achievement in the field of architecture are really great. The pyramids and temples built by them are unique and marvellous.
- (4) Massive statues like Sphinx are their great contributions.
- (5) Their furniture and decorating material is wonderful.
- (6) They were pioneers in the field of agriculture.
- (7) Mining, metallurgy, industry, crafts, poultry, glass-work, textile industry, and inlay work was highly developed.
- (8) The credit for inventing alphabet, ink and pen goes to the Egyptians.
- (9) They were the first to make paper named papyrus, for writing.
- (10) They built dams and canals first of all. They dug the first Suez canal in 1900 B.C. They also built large ships.
- (11) They invented the shadow clock and solar calendar.
- (12) They had acquired considerable knowledge in Mathematics.
- (13) They were also pioneers in medicine and astronomy.
- (14) They gave new philosophical and religious ideas such as monotheism.

In short, we can say that the Egyptians gave many things to the world which were later on, improved upon by other nations. They were the first to think of them first of all.

V. A. Renouf has rightly remarked "*Egypt shares with Babylonia the honour of having laid the foundations of western civilization. It is difficult to tell precisely what are the laws and customs which have come down to modern times from the Egyptians, but it is certain that the Phoenicians and the Greeks learned a great deal through their intercourse with them. The Greeks long looked upto the Egyptian priests as the masters of the deepest learning The first in the list of those great peoples who have helped the world forward are the Egyptians.*"

Summary of the Chapter in a Nut-shell

1. River Valley Civilizations

Civilizations first developed in river valleys because the land was fertile ; water was available for men and animals , it was easy to build huts with mud ; means of easy communication were available, warm and pleasant climate.

2. Nile-Valley Civilization

(1) It is considered to be the oldest civilization whose records have been preserved (2) River Nile played an important part in its development (3) Geographical situation also proved helpful (4) Egyptians belong to the Mediterranean race.

Political History. It is divided into two periods—
(1) Pre-Dynastic period before 3,400 B.C. and (2) The Dynastic period after 3,400 B.C.

(1) **Pre-Dynastic Period.** (1) Formation of Tribes (2) Rise of the Kingdom of North and Kingdom of the South (3) Menes united the two Kingdoms about 3,400 B C,

(2) **Dynastic Period.** (1) The Pyramid Age (3400-2500 B C,) Pharaohs enjoyed unlimited power and made Pyramids *e.g.* Pyramid of Gizeh. (2) The Feudal Period (2500-1580 B.C.) was a period of confusion, disorder and foreign invasions and domination of Hyksos (3) The Imperial Period (1580-1150 B C) had many powerful kings, vast empire and other great achievements (4) Period of Decline (1150-332 B C.) saw the invasions of Assyria and Babylonia; later on Alexander invaded Egypt.

Government or Administrative System. (1) Pharaoh was the head of the state and enjoyed unlimited powers (2) ministers, nobles and officials (3) Administrative division like Nome. (4) Army (5) Pharaoh as the supreme judge (6) Pharaoh was a benevolent despot (7) Source of Income.

Social Life Three classes in society (2) High Status of Women (3) Amusements.

Economic Life (1) Agriculture (2) Industries and Crafts (3) Trade and Commerce.

Religious Life (1) Multiplicity of Gods (2) Ra or (sun God), Osiris, Isis and Horus were the chief gods. (3) Worship

of animals and birds as representatives of different gods (4) Pharaohs and Priests enjoyed great respect (5) Belief in life after death, immortality and transmigration of soul, (6) Preservation of dead bodies-mummies (7) Monotheism of Akhnaton failed.

Egyptian Art. (1) Architecture—construction of massive and magnificent Pyramids, temple—Pyramid of Gizeh and temple of Karnak. (2) Sculpture—massive and life like statues—Sphinx. (3) Paintings on the walls of various monuments. (4) other minor arts

Writing, Literature, Science and Education (1) Writing, Hieroglyphic writing—24—letter alphabet, Script, was deciphered from the Rossetta Stone, invention of papyrus, ink and pen. (2) *Literature*—Poems, religious books, stories etc (3) *Science*—Engineering, Astronomy, Maths, and Medicine, solar calendar, decimal system, knowledge of Anatomy and Medicine and Surgery. (4) Education—It was greatly encouraged.

3. Contribution of the Egyptian Civilization.

(1) First to march towards civilization (2) Centralized government (3) Pyramids and temples (4) Statues, and Sphinx (5) Furniture (6) Various industries and Crafts (7) Agriculture (8) Writing (9) Papyrus, ink and pen (10) Dams and Canals (11) Shadow clock and solar calendar (12) Knowledge of Maths (13) Medicine and astronomy (14) Religious and Philosophical ideas

University and other Important Questions

1. Why did the ancient civilization grow mostly in river Valleys ?
(C.B.S.E., 1971)
2. Describe the growth of the civilization in Egypt with special reference to its contribution to ancient religion, architecture and science
(B.U. 1960, U U. 1965)
3. Describe the main features of the Egyptian Civilization. (C.B.S.E. 1970)
4. Describe the condition of state, society and religion in Ancient Egypt.
(U U. 1962)
5. What does the world owe to the Ancient Egypt ?
(All India Hr. Sec. 1966 ; B.U. 1963)
6. Write in about ten lines what you know about the following :—
 - (1) Queen Hatshepsut
 - (2) Thutmose III
 - (3) Akhnaton
 - (4) The Pyramids
 - (5) Sphinx
 - (6) Temple of Karnak
 - (7) Why is Egypt called the "Gift of Nile? "
 - (8) Why are ancient monuments in Egypt preserved ?
 - (9) Solar Calendar
 - (10) The Rossetta Stone.

Ancient Civilization of Mesopotamia

The civilization of Mesopotamia, like that of Egypt, was a river valley civilization. It flourished on the land lying between the two rivers—The Tigris and Euphrates. This land was very fertile and suitable for agriculture, because water was available in large quantity. The climate was warm and pleasant. These factors combined together and gave birth to the civilization of Mesopotamia. Unlike Egypt it was not protected by natural features and was thus exposed to foreign invasions. Mesopotamia, in fact, served as a reservoir into which constantly poured streams of different people. This very factor gave rise to various civilizations such as the Sumerian civilization, the Babylonian civilization and the Assyrian civilization. That is why Mesopotamia has sometimes been called "*The cradle and grave of many civilizations*". The civilization of Mesopotamia was more or less contemporary of the Egyptian civilization.

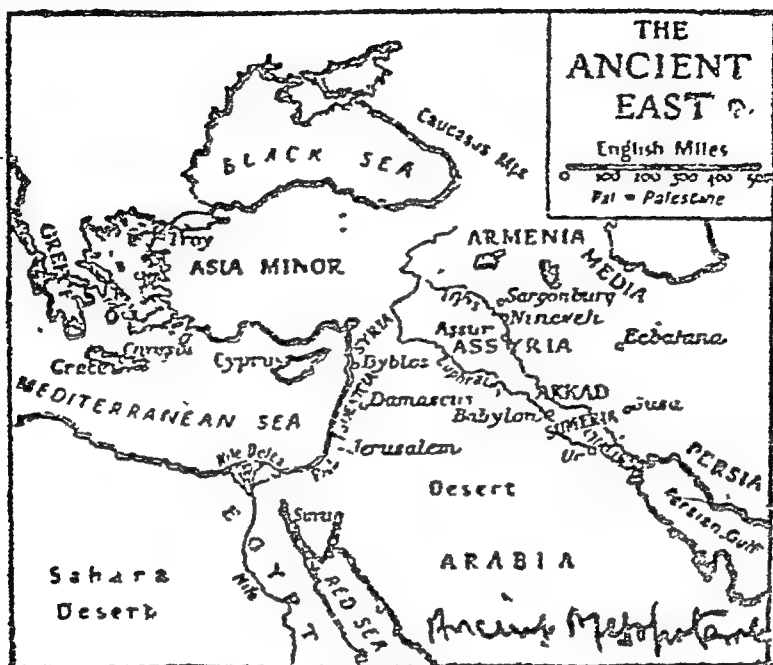
SECTION 1 : THE SUMERIAN CIVILIZATION

The Sumerians were the first to develop a civilization on the land lying between the Tigris and the Euphrates in about 5,000 B.C. Who were these people and from where they came to Sumer is still a mystery. Some writers consider them as the descendents of Mongols, while others try to connect their relation with the Dravidians and the Aryans. Most probably they came into this valley as nomadic people from the Arabian Desert. They were called Sumerians because their capital was at Sumer in the lower part of the valley.

1. Political Life. The Sumerians did not establish any large empire. There were city-states as in Greece in later days. The greatest among them were Ur, Lagash, Umma and Nippur etc. Every city-state comprised of a big city and the territory surrounding it. These city-states were quite independent of one another and often fought with each other over land and water. In doing so they more often destroyed each other.

The Sumerian city-states were ruled over by Priest-kings called '*Patesi*' or '*Patesi*'. He was the chief priest and ruled as an agent of the local god of the city-state. He lived in a fortified palace near the temple. The king had many duties to perform. He led the people in processions to worship gods. He was the judge and the law-giver of the city. He looked after the constant repair of the city-walls to make them quite strong against the enemies. It was his duty to guard the canals and the water-ways. During war days he

led his men to battles. He supervised agriculture, industries and construction of temples. He was helped by various priests and officials in the transaction of the business of the state. He was responsible to God for the performance of his duties.



Ancient Mesopotamia

Azgbau, the queen of Kish and Ur Engur and Gudea, the king of Ur and Lagash were the famous Sumerian rulers. Azgbau was an ordinary woman who rose to a great height by dint of her wisdom.

She ruled for about 50 years. During her reign Kish became a great centre of learning, literature, art and trade. Ur Engur was a brave king. He ruled cleverly, made good laws and built magnificent buildings. His laws occupy an important place in the history of Mesopotamia. Gudea was a kind, noble and benevolent king of Lagash. He began to be worshipped as a God by the people after his death. On one of his statues has been found the following inscription, "During my reign maid servant was the equal of her mistress, the slave walked beside his master and in my town the weak were in peace by the side of the strong."



As the Sumerians were in the habit of fighting with each other so in about 2,750

King Gudea B C 2,600

B.C. a Semitic tribe of Akkadians, led by their king Sargon, conquered the whole land of Sumer. Then he marched East and West, North and South, conquering every where. His empire extended from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea. By his conquests he built the first great empire of Western Asia and thus came to be known as '*Sargon the Great*'. He called himself the "king of universal Dominion" and ruled for fifty five years. The Akkadians assimilated the Sumerian culture and further developed it. Their kingdom, however, came to an end after about two centuries.

2. **Social Life.** Sumerian society was divided into three classes. The higher class consisted of the king, members of the royal family, priests and high officials. The middle class was comprised of the landlords, traders and artisans. While the lower class included in it the farmers and the slaves. *Slavery* was prevalent in Sumeria but the slaves were not treated harshly as in European countries during the middle ages. The women occupied a high position in the society and were held in great respect. They had the right to property and could carry on independent professions. Ordinarily one man could marry only one wife.

They put on clothes of flax and finely woven wool. The men wore short kilts (a kind of shirt) and women long dresses. They lived in houses made of bricks.

3. **Economic Life.** The main occupation of the Sumerians was *agriculture*. Their soil was fertile as it had been continuously built by the mud brought by the two rivers, Tigris and Euphrates. Because of these rivers, water was available in large quantity in Mesopotamia so it (i.e. Mesopotamia) has been rightly called "*The Gift of the Euphrates and the Tigris*". The Sumerian farmers made dykes, canals and trenches and other irrigation works to irrigate their land in dry season. As a result of these measures rich harvests grew there abundantly. The Sumerians cultivated wheat, barley, pulses and vegetables etc. According to H.A. Davies, "*The cultivation of wheat may have been originated in this part of the world, for there it has been discovered growing wild*". The Sumerian farmers had ploughs, which were drawn by oxen and clay-sickles which were used for cutting their crops.

Domestication of animals was another important occupation of the Sumerians because fodder for them could be had there in large quantity. They domesticated cows, oxen, goats, sheep and donkeys etc. The oxen ploughed the fields, while the asses were used as beasts of burden.

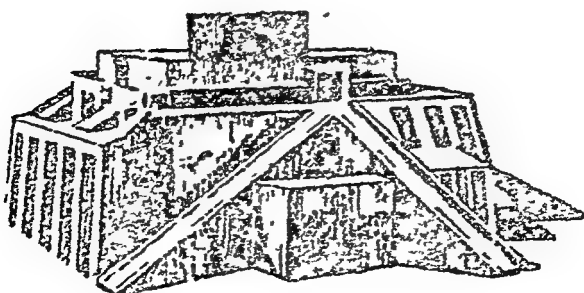
Different objects discovered from various Sumerian sites, show that the Sumerians were skilled *craftsmen*. They made beautiful things of gold, silver, copper, ivory and wood, etc. They were well-versed in the art of weaving cotton and woollen clothings. They built palaces, tanks and temples of bricks. *The credit for the invention of wheel goes to the Sumerians*. The Sumerian carts were some of the

most ancient wheeled vehicles that have been found in the world. In the words of **John Conrad Appel**, we can say that "*They improved the wheel with which they built carts and chariots and without which our modern civilization would have been impossible. Hundreds of thousands of cars on the highways, long trains rolling across miles of tracks, giant appliances cutting skies, machinery whirling in the factories every where, all these had their beginnings in the minds of some clever Sumerians who wanted to find a way to transport things more easily*".

The Sumerians were good traders who carried on their trade far and wide upto the great rivers and beyond. Some of the coins discovered from the Indus Valley reveal that the Sumerians had commercial relations with India also. In exchange for their articles such as crops, wool, fruits and clothing they brought back gold, silver, ivory, copper and fine cedar wood from other lands. In the beginning trade was carried on by the barter system but later on they also began to use gold and silver coins. In reality their rich agricultural and industrial output resulted in an extensive trade and commerce with other countries.

The Sumerians were very expert in keeping *commercial accounts and records*. From their coins we learn that the custom of borrowing and lending prevailed in Sumeria. They issued bills and receipts for commercial transaction. It is their important contribution to the world civilization.

4. Religious Life. Like the Egyptians, the Sumerians believed in Polytheism and worshipped many gods. Nearly every city had its own special god. The Sumerian religion was mainly that of nature worship. Some of the gods were worshipped all over the "land". There was the sun-god *Shamash*, who was considered as the "*light of the gods*". *Ningiri* was the Lord of floods. *Irini* was the earth goddess and *Enlil* was the god of the air. Big temples had been built to worship these gods. The most famous of them were the temples of god *Enlil* at *Nippur* and that of *Shamash* at *Lagash*. These temples were famous as "*Ziggurats*". They rose in several storeys like huge boxes of bricks placed one on the top of the other, each one being smaller than the one below. On the top was the sacred



Ziggurat

shrine with the image of the god. The inner part was highly decorated with marble, gold and precious stones, cedar wood and carved statues. They (i.e. Ziggurats) were quite different from the pillared temples of Egypt having big halls. Though the temples of Egypt were massive yet they were single storeyed.

The priests were highly honoured in Sumeria. The kings also belonged to this class. This class was very rich and powerful. It was they who understood best, the art of writing and the sciences of astronomy, mathematics and medicine. They were not only priests but teachers, doctors and fore-tellers of future.

The Sumerians believed in many *superstitions*. They had a faith that floods, diseases, and famines were caused when gods were angry. So offerings were made to them to seek their blessings.

Like Egyptians, the Sumerians buried their dead but built no tombs over them. Along with the bodies of kings and queens have been discovered the bodies of their maids, attendants, courtiers, etc. This reveals their faith in life after death.

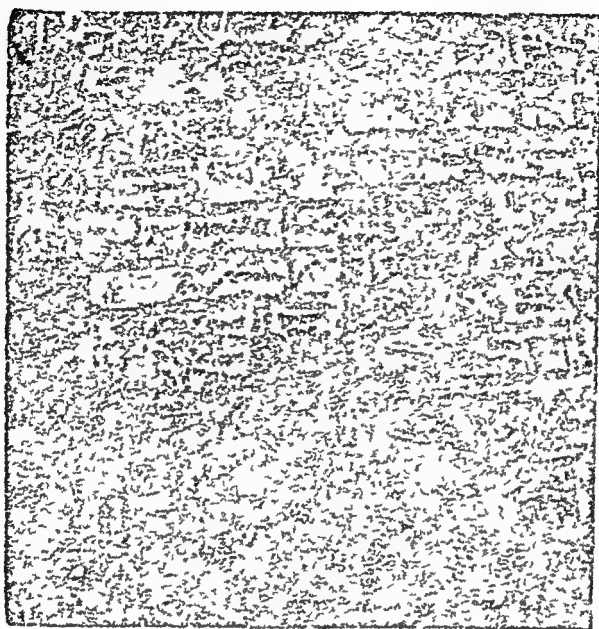
5 The Sumerian Art. The Sumerians were great lovers of art. Due to the lack of stone they could not build massive buildings like the Egyptian pyramids, sphinx, temples and statues. Their main contribution was the introduction of new architectural forms, such as *Columns, Vault and Arch*.

The homes of the common people were unattractive and were nothing more than huts while those of the priests and rich people were of many storeys and built of dried bricks. They, however, lacked the grandeur of the Egyptian buildings. The walls and ceilings were covered with wooden planks which were decorated with paintings. Special care was taken to beautify the temples. Their temples or Ziggurats were decorated with pale blue enamelled tiles and they were ornamented with marble, from inside gold and precious stones, carved statues and rich cedar-wood.

Some writers are of the view that the *Sumerian sculptures* were not life-like and they lacked ornamentation. But they filled this gap by producing some rare specimens of pottery and goldsmithy. Pottery and goldsmithy reveal the high standard of the skill of the Sumerian artists. Seals cut in stone and beautifully decorated metal work, throw a good deal of light on the workmanship of Sumerian craftsmen. Their seals are a precious record of their art as well as of their history.

6. Art of Writing The greatest contribution of the Sumerians was in the field of writing, which was in use there about 4,000 B.C. It is believed that the Sumerians learnt the art of writing perhaps earlier than the ancient Egyptians. It began with the drawing of pictures. Then they shortened them into about 350 wedge-shaped signs. Later on the signs came to stand for the sound of words. They wrote from right to left. They wrote on the tablettes of clay with a pen of reed or bone. It had a wedge-shaped point, so their writing came to be known as '*Cuneiform*' or wedge-shaped. After

writing on the tablets, they dried them in the sun and sometimes they baked them in the fire to make the writing somewhat more permanent. These tablets contained the records of the daily-life of the people, trade of the cities and tales of war and conquests. They are the main source of the Sumerian civilization.



A Specimen of Cuneiform Script

7 Literature The clay tablets, found in the excavation of various cities of Sumeria show that the Sumerians had made a great advancement in literature. They possessed a great collection of stories, songs, epics and religious folk-lore. In the ruins of the ancient Sumerian city of Tello, a great library of 30,000 tablets has been dug up. This perhaps forms the first library, ever known.

8 Sciences The Sumerians made a great progress in sciences especially in the field of *mathematics and astronomy*. They invented a moon calendar and divided the year into 12 lunar months. Day and night were also divided into two divisions of 12 hours each. 60 was the limit of Sumerian numerals. They first of all divided the hour into sixty minutes and a minute into sixty seconds. Their weight measure was the 'Mina' which was divided into 60 'Shakles'. They were the first to divide the circle into 360°. About their notable achievement in Mathematics **John Conrad Appel** writes, "Every time you hear the final whistle at a football game or look at your own watch the Sumerian pass lives on for you, because the Sumerians introduced sixty as a unit for measuring time, sixty seconds in a minute and sixty minutes in an hour."

The Sumerians also made amazing achievements in the fields of *astronomy and astrology*. They observed the movements of the sun, the moon and many stars and planets in a scientific manner. They could foretell the time of lunar and solar eclipses and were of the view that they had deep influence on mankind. They named the stars after their favourite gods. The botanical and chemical terms invented by them are still used by the modern scientists.

From the above description it is quite clear that the Sumerians had developed an advanced civilization in about 5,000-6,000 B.C. In the words of **Will Durant** "*The Sumerians had the first states and empires, the first irrigation, the first use of gold and silver as standards of value, the first business contract, the first credit system, the first code of law, the first extensive development of writing.....the first arch, columns, vault and dome.*" This is really their great contribution to the world civilization

SECTION 2: THE BABYLONIAN CIVILIZATION

After the fall of the Sumerian civilization another civilization flourished in Mesopotamia. It is known as the Babylonian civilization because its chief centre was the city of Babylon.

1. Political Life. The pioneers of the Babylonian civilization were Semitic people who led a nomadic life in the neighbourhood of Sumeria. Being attracted by the fertility of the soil, these tribes entered the valley of two rivers one after the other and began to settle there. In about 20,750 B.C. some Semitic tribes of the Akkadians led by their king Sargon I, attacked Sumeria, conquered some of their territory and led the formation of the Akkad state. Slowly and slowly he conquered the whole of Sumeria and came to be known as Sargon the Great. His empire extended from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea. He founded the city of Babylon which became the centre of the Babylonian Civilization.

After about two centuries this Akkadian empire began to decay and many other nomadic tribes began to penetrate Mesopotamia. In about 2300 B.C. another Semitic tribe, named 'Amorite', attacked Mesopotamia from the side of Assyria and brought much of the territory under its own domination. They also made Babylon the capital of their empire. In about 2100 B.C. this civilization reached the height of its glory under the able leadership of their famous and capable king Hammurabi.

Emperor Hammurabi (2123-2080 B.C.) was a great ruler. He was the ruler of the Semitic people called the Amorites. He was a young-man of courage and genius. He united Mesopotamia and established a centralized government. It is said that he acted like a whirlwind in a fight, and would cut his enemies to pieces. He never lost a battle and formed the great empire of Babylonia. His letters and other relics show that he was not merely a great fighter but also a great king, statesman and a law-giver. Though he governed the land with an iron hand yet he administered the land, just like a father rules over his family. He was a tireless king in all matters of government. He made Babylon a great city with fine streets, palaces and temples. He built a large bridge over the Euphrates so that great ships could sail up and down the river.



King Hammurabi

Under his wise rule Babylon prospered much. He also built a great canal hundreds of miles long between the two rivers from the town of Kish to the Persian Gulf. This great canal not only brought waters to irrigate lands but also helped to protect the cities from floods, whenever, the rivers overflowed their banks. As a result of these measures trade flourished and wealth of the country increased by leaps and bounds.

Hammurabi did his best to establish peace and order in the land. He divided the whole empire into provinces for better administration. He appointed governors on the basis of efficiency and intelligence. A collection of 55 of his letters, written on clay tablets, has recently been discovered. These letters reveal that he had issued orders to his governors to rule the people wisely and in the best interests of his subjects. His code of laws, about which we shall discuss in details below, has immortalized him in history.

After his death, his empire began to decline. In about 1750 B.C. Babylon was attacked by the Hittites from the west and the Kassites from the east. Later on Babylon was conquered by the Assyrians and the Egyptians respectively. Under the rule of Chaldean king Nebuchadnezzar, Babylon gained her lost glory between 604 to 562 B.C. Babylon was ornamented with the so-called "*Hanging Garden*". After the death of this great king, Babylon passed under the rule of the Egyptians.

From the above account, it is clear that the Babylonian civilization was the mixture of many civilizations. The Sumerians, the Akkadians, the Amorites and the Chaldeans played an important part in the development of this civilization. In fact the Babylonian civilization owes much to the Sumerians. In this connection

George Guest observes, "It is evident, therefore, that the Babylonian civilization was a development of that founded by the Sumerians."

2. **Hammurabi's Code of Laws.** No description of the Babylonian civilization shall be complete without a special reference to the Hammurabi's Code of Laws. Undoubtedly one of the greatest achievements of Hammurabi was his code of laws. He had them carved on a splendid column of hard stone of 8 feet length. It still exists today in a museum in Paris. There had of course been earlier law-givers, but the great stone of Hammurabi is the earliest complete record of laws that has been found in the world. This code is based on justice, old customs, and traditions.

On one side of the stone is a picture of the king receiving the laws from the sun-god; and at the end of the laws there is a fine message which runs like this. "Let any oppressed man come before my image as king of justice. May he set his mind at rest, saying, 'Hammurabi is indeed like a father to his people. He has brought prosperity and given a pure government to the land'. In the days to come, may future kings, obey the words of righteousness which I have written upon my monument."

Then there are about 282 laws which deal with every part of the human life. The code includes laws on property, wages, contracts, debts, banking, theft, murder, marriage etc. There are punishments for crimes, injuries and other evils; and rules about family life, trading and treatment of workers in the cities and on the farms.

Some of the laws are very severe and based on the saying, "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." For example, if a house was not well-built and fell down and killed the owner, then the builder of the house was himself to be put to death. Though these laws were somewhat severe, yet they went a long way in maintaining peace and order. In this connection **John Conrad Appel** observes—"Hammurabi's code is the oldest code of laws in the history of the world." It throws light on the conditions prevailing in those days. It helps us a lot in forming an idea of the political, social, economic and religious life of the people of Babylon. Hammurabi's code became famous all over the world and served as a basis for the future kings to form their codes of laws.

3. **Social Life** The Babylonian society, like that of the Sumerian society, was divided into three classes—the upper class, the middle class and the lower class. The upper class consisted of priests, nobles and high officials who enjoyed many rights. The middle class comprised of landlords, traders and craftsmen who led a happy life. The slaves formed the lower class. It was said that, "The man is the shadow of God, the slave is the shadow of the man." But the slaves were not so bad off as in the Middle Ages. The slaves were protected by the law. They enjoyed certain rights. Slaves might own property, marry and will their professions to their children. Freedom from bondage could be obtained easily.

Women occupied a high position in the society and enjoyed various rights and freedom. They could hold property and adopt various professions.

Marriage was considered as a legal bondage. Generally a man married one wife but polygamy was also prevalent in the society. Justice was also assured to widows and orphans. The widows had the right to remarry.

4. Economic Life The land between the two rivers was very fertile and productive. Hence *agriculture* was the main occupation of the Babylonians. Hammurabi and Nebuchadrezzar paid special attention to the construction of dams, dykes, canals and reservoirs for irrigation purposes. The farmers grew rich crops of cereals and fruits. Agriculture formed the basis of their economic life. The famous Greek historian Herodotus has well written, "*Of all countries that we know there is none which is so fruitful in grain. It is so fruitful as to yield commonly two hundred-fold.....The blade of the wheat plant and barley plant is often four fingers in breadth.*"

The government built good roads and maintained peace and order. In this way it encouraged *industry* and *commerce*. Various craftsmen, such as weavers, dyers, carpenters, brickmakers, goldsmiths, jewellers, potters, sculptors, metal workers etc. have been mentioned in their writings and their rights were safeguarded by the government.

The Babylonians had *trade relations* with the Egyptians, the west Asian countries and people living in the Indus valley. They kept records and accounts. Money was lent on interest which varied from 20 to 35%. They used weights, such as '*Mine*' and '*Shakel*'. Trade was carried on the basis of the barter system but sometimes silver coins were also used. The Babylonians were well off because of their improved farming and flourishing trade and industry.

5. Religious Life. The Babylonians were polytheists and worshipped many gods. They believed in nature-worship. There were separate gods of water, sky and earth. '*Marduk*' was their supreme god. '*Shamash*' was the sun-god. '*Ishtar*' was the goddess of love and fertility. Later on, the Greeks also adopted these gods but under different names.

According to J.E. Swain, "*Fear held the people in subjection, and the element of love, as a dominant factor in worship, was lacking. The chief motive in worship by Babylonians seems to have been to obtain substantial benefits from the gods and to escape their wrath and vengeance.*"

The Babylonians had built many *temples* for their gods. Their temples were known as '*Ziggurats*'. Later on these temples became the centre of learning, art, science and commerce. Such an importance attached to temples naturally exalted the position of the priests in the society. They grew richer and powerful day by day.

The Babylonians had faith in good and bad omens as well as in astrology. They sowed and cut crops at auspicious occasions. The astrologers used to foretell the future with the help of the mysterious signs found on the liver of the sacrificed sheep. According to H.A. Davies "*The art of foretelling future by using sheep's livers reached Rome from Babylon*". Sometimes they foretold the future by observing movements of the stars and the planets.

The Babylonians had *no interest in after life*, which they considered dismal and as such they believed in improving their life on this earth.

6. **Art.** The *architecture* of Babylonians disappeared completely, partly because of the situation of Mesopotamia which was subject to various foreign invasions, and partly because of the nature of the buildings which were made of wood and bricks instead of stone. Babylonian literature is the only source of knowledge about the Babylonian temples and palaces. The Babylonian kings built palaces and temples in their city states. These temples were called "*Ziggurats*" which had many storeys like a tower. The tower of Babel, 288 feet high, is the best example of such pyramidal structure. The royal palaces were spacious and useful in their own way but they lacked the massiveness and ornamentation of the Egyptian buildings.

The Babylonians also lagged behind the Egyptians in the *art of sculpture*. Their sculptures were far inferior to those of the Egyptians. The art of painting did not flourish as an independent art but was used only for decorating walls with the paintings of men, animals, birds and natural scenes. The statues of stone and metal were not of high quality.

The development of *seals* was the greatest artistic accomplishment of the Babylonians. Babylonians, from commoner to king had his personal seals. These seals are an important source of information regarding the Babylonian civilization.

Though the Babylonians had not made any wonderful progress in the realm of architecture, painting and sculpture yet they were great lovers of art. *Weaving* became a great industry and clothes of bright colours were woven. They were dyed blue and red in stripes of different hues. The Babylonians were also skilful in the art of smithy and could make very beautiful ornaments of gold and silver. They had also advanced much in the field of music. This hobby of their forced them to manufacture various kinds of musical instruments. They designed the '*Hanging Gardens*' which are still included among the Seven Wonders of the world. They also invented coins, weights and measures.

7. Art of Writing, Literature, Sciences and Education.

(1) *Art of Writing.* The Babylonians adopted the Sumerian cuneiform writing, but they altered it and developed it further,

though it never reached the alphabet stage. Their correspondence with the Pharaohs of Egypt reveal that they had expanded its use to a great extent. According to **V.A. Renouf** this Cuneiform writing occupied the same position in those days as is occupied by English today.

(2) *Literature*. Mythology and epics were the favourite forms of Babylonian literature. In their literature they tried to explain the existence of man and his relationship with the universe. Many hymns and songs were written in praise of different gods. They wrote many poems and stories. Gilgamesh was their greatest epic. It contained many Babylonian myths. It has been compared with Milton's *Paradise Lost*. The heroic deed of the prince Gilgamesh has been described in a very interesting manner. He survived the Diluge and escaped death. Babylonian stories and proverbs are famous all over the world.

(3) *Sciences*. The Babylonians made wonderful progress in field of various sciences like Mathematics, Astronomy and Medicine.

They were skilful in *Mathematics* and perhaps they were the first to develop Algebra and Geometry. Like Sumerians they used 60 as unit for counting. They had invented the Signs for three digits i.e. 1, 10 and 100. A sign for One could be repeated upto 9 : a sign for 10 could be repeated upto, 50. They had also invented tables for multiplication and division. Like the Sumerians they had divided the circle into 360° .

Babylonians were far advanced in *Astronomy*. In the words of **George Guest**. "*Babylonia, had been called the birth place of astronomy, for almost every city possessed an observatory*". They studied the movements of the sun, the moon and the planets and their influence on man. They used sun-clock and water-clock to note down time in the day-time and at night respectively. They developed a lunar calendar and divided a year into 12 lunar months and also invented a seven-day week. They had divided the hour into sixty minutes and a minute into sixty seconds.

The Babylonians had great interest in the *science of medicine* also. The priests used to cure diseases by incantations. The medicines were also used for this purpose. Herbs were also used to cure diseases. Sun flower seed was recommended for toothache, milk for stomach trouble, and an oil shampoo and beer for baldness.

(4) *Education*. Great importance was attached to education in the Babylonian Civilization. In the schools, which were usually in or beside the temples, boys were taught reading, writing and arithmetic while girls were taught music and dancing. Men were trained for clerical work in the temple-schools. Different types of cultural pursuits were also enoraged. In a school house which has been discovered among the ruins of a Babylonian city there were still lying on the floor the exercises done by the pupils four thousand years ago on the clay tablets which they used as slates. On one of

the tablet the pupil had copied an ancient proverb which shows how highly the Babylonians valued writing. "*He who excels in writing shall shine like the sun*". According to H. A. Davies. "*This old school-house has a peculiar interest as the oldest school-house in existence*"

Importance of the Babylonian Civilization. The Babylonian civilization occupies an important place in the history of the world civilization. It forms the background of the later developments. J. E. Swain has rightly remarked "*Most of the succeeding civilizations in south-western Asia and even in Greece owe much to the Babylonians. They studied the past, unhampered by the idea of future life. They preserved many legends not only their own, but also those of other people, which present an interesting background for the Hebrew Bible. Science made a real beginning under their critical and analytical observations. They developed units for the measurement of length, cubic capacity, time and weight. In literature, they evolved the epic, psalms, fables and proverbs. The foundation of mathematics, astronomy, archaeology, history, medicine, grammar and philosophy were established. Indeed, Babylonians charted previously unknown routes on the sea of learning. Their intellectual sign posts guided many a scholar in centuries that followed*"

SECTION 3. THE ASSYRIAN CIVILIZATION

1. History of the Assyrian Civilization. Like the Babylonians, the Assyrians had been a wandering tribe of another Semitic people. They settled far up the Tigris river where fertile valleys nestled under the northern mountains. Their main town Assur was named after their chief god of the same name. From the very beginning, they were a fierce and cruel people and continuous fighting made them stronger and fiercer. About 1600 B.C., they freed themselves from the yoke of the Babylonians and established their new empire.

The credit for setting up the Assyrian empire goes to Tiglath Pilaser I who brought even Babylonia under his domination by 1100 B.C. But the Assyrian Empire reached the height of its glory during the reign of Sargon II, his son Sennacherib and grand son Assurbanipal. Sargon II (722—705 B.C.) and Sennacherib (705 to 680 B.C.) were very capable and very brave rulers. They extended their empire from the Persian Gulf to Egypt. They attacked and plundered many towns of Asia Minor and Palestine. However, they were great lovers of art and learning. Sargon II set up a large library while Sennacherib made Nineveh his capital and ornamented it with beautiful buildings. His own palace was unique and was known as the "*The Incomparable*".

The reign of Assurbanipal (668—628 B.C.) is known as the Golden Age in the history of Assyria. He further extended the boundaries of his empire and conquered even southern part of Egypt which could not be conquered by his ancestors. He was also a great patron of learning. He collected about 22,000 tablets into a great

library which has been found and preserved in a British museum in London. They tell us the deeds of kings and heroes, and about the ancient stories and legends of Babylonia. After the death of Assur banipal the great empire of Assyria fell with a rapid pace.

2 Military and Political Organization. The Assyrians were very war-like and they were the first to use weapons of iron. Their bowmen and spearmen used helmets of iron or bronze, and wore leather shirts with plates of iron. Their spearmen also carried big shields. Their plans for battle were carefully made before they attacked. The king and his nobles led the army in chariots. They were followed by horsemen and infantrymen, carrying spears and arrows with iron points. For attacking the walled cities they invented the battering-ram tipped with iron. They could easily batter down the brick fortifications surrounding a city. The Assyrian army was well-armed and disciplined. Assyrian kings boasted of their cruelty and their armies spread terror all around, wherever, they went. They believed that their god, Assur, was pleased with slaughter. Their first and foremost policy was to organize their military strength and extend their empire. They were perhaps the pioneers of imperialism in the world. The empire which they built was remembered in the ancient world more for its cruelty than for its splendour.

The *Assyrian government* was highly centralized. The king was a despot and a general who directed both the military and civil affairs of the state. He was the chief law-giver and appointed all the governors of the provinces. He ruled with an iron hand and controlled his people with the help of his armed forces. He decided all matters concerning peace and war. The people of the conquered territories were treated very cruelly. They were either killed or carried off into slavery. The penal-code was very severe. The king appointed messengers who kept him in close touch with all the important centres of the empire. It is said that the Assyrians were perhaps the first to develop public postal system so that orders could be despatched to all the provinces of the empire easily and immediately. In short it can be said that the Assyrian state was a military state. Such efficient military and political organisations were the chief contributions of the Assyrians.

3. Social Life. The Assyrian society was divided into two classes—the independent citizens and the slaves. The independent class of citizens consisted of nobles, artisans and the commoners. The nobles led a very luxurious life and enjoyed special rights and privileges. The artisans had organized themselves into guilds. The commoners did not lead a happy life. The life of the slaves was very miserable and unhappy. The Assyrians enslaved the persons captured during the war. The Assyrians were, no doubt a cruel and fierce people. So the warriors occupied an honourable position in the society. Women were also respected in the society.

4. Economic Life Fighting was undoubtedly the main occupation of the Assyrians but they did not ignore the cultivation

of land, cultivation was mainly done by the slaves. They cultivated wheat, barley, cotton etc. The cotton plants were known as the "*Trees that bore fruit*". Perhaps these cotton trees were imported from India. The Assyrians tried to augment their economic position with the rich plunder they got from the conquered lands.

5. Religious Life. Like other nations, whose main pursuit was war, the Assyrians had little original culture. In religion they had their own god, Assur, but otherwise their beliefs were almost, the same as those of the Babylonians. "*Assur*" the sun-god, was their chief god. They believed that *Assur* was much pleased with sacrifice, so they killed countless prisoners before his temples to please him. They also worshipped "*Ishlar*" the goddess of love. They had faith in magic and charms.

6. Art and Literature. The Assyrians were warriors, so they did not make any note-worthy contribution to the development of culture and civilization, but certainly they were not totally blind to culture. In this connection H A Davies observes, "*Although such ruthless and barbaric conquerors, the Assyrians were by no means blind to culture*".

The Assyrians made much progress in architecture, painting and sculpture. Sargon II and Sennacherib were great builders. They built the *finest city of Nineveh* and ornamented it with beautiful palaces and temples. The palaces were luxurious, with huge alabaster statues, glazed brick walls, and brilliant colours used everywhere. The kings decorated the interiors of their palaces with gigantic pictures telling of their power. The city was surrounded by two



A Winged Bull (Assyria)

walls eight miles long, 100 feet high and 50 feet thick. A good water supply, hereto lacking in ancient cities, was another achievement of the Assyrian kings. A system of aqueducts was built to bring water to the city from a big reservoir, fed by mountain streams.



An Assyrian War-Chariot

Assyrian sculptures were more realistic and life-like than those of the Babylonians. Much of the subject-matter was taken from military life. Animals, like bulls, horses and lions, were portrayed better than men. Animal-sculptures showed a vigour of action and feeling. Base-relief was developed to a great perfection. J.E. Swain remarks, "*The horses of Sargon II on the reliefs of Khorsabad, the wounded lioness from Sennacherib's palace, the dying lion of Assurbanipal's, and the resting lioness are still recognized as masterpieces in base relief*". A winged-bull painted in an Assyrian palace is the master piece of Assyrian sculpture. These animal-sculptures remind one, the sculptures of Asoka's reign. The hunting and war scenes engraved on stone are very much life like. It has been rightly said that "*their hunting and fighting scenes show a power of depicting swift movement which not even the Greeks surpassed*".

Some writers like J.E. Swain are of the opinion that the Assyrians added some practical knowledge in chemistry, in making of glass and in the preparation of ores.

The Assyrians showed great interest in *learning and education* as well. Their famous king Assurbanipal collected 22,000 tablets

into a great library at Nineveh. In the words of John Conard Appel *"Most of these tablets are about the size of an ordinary text-book, but some are much smaller. There are 'books' of hymns, prayers, medicine, letters, grammar and the statements of the superstitions of the people. By means of these tablets modern historians have been able to read thoughts of the ancient Assyrians"*.

7. An Estimate of the Assyrian Civilization. In short, we have to say that the greatest achievement of the Assyrian people was in the field of military and political organization rather than in the realm of art and literature. There is no doubt that they did not ignore these sides also. In the words of John Conard Appel *"The Assyrian empire was the first to demonstrate to the world that with the aid of horses and iron weapons, one ruler could rule a far-flung territory and so create an empire"*

Forming an estimate of the Assyrian civilization George Guest says *"But the Assyrians did contribute to some extent to the advance of civilization. They developed the art of sculpture to a high degree, and they carried Babylonian culture to the boundaries of their great empire"*.

8. Causes of Decline of the Assyrian Empire. There is no denying the fact that by means of her well-trained armies Assyria succeeded in laying the foundation of a vast empire. But her ruthless methods of warfare, however, aroused the hatred of the neighbouring peoples. Continuous wars resulted in crippling her military strength and as a result they could not hold their sway over the conquered territories for a longer time. Their economic condition also grew worse. The war of succession among the Assyrians also weakened their power. Consequently in about 612 B.C. the Babylonians, Medes and Chaldeans captured and destroyed the Assyrian capital and its empire.

SECTION 4. FEATURES OF THE MESOPOTAMIAN CIVILIZATION

Like Egypt, India and China a highly advanced civilization flourished about 6000-5000 B.C. in Mesopotamia, the land between the two rivers, the Euphrates and the Tigris. There arose many empires one after the other like Sumeria, Babylonia and Assyria. Each one of them has its own special features but here we will discuss only the main features of the Mesopotamian civilization and its contribution to the world civilization.

1. City States In the beginning there were many city-states in Mesopotamia. Each one of them had its own ruler and legal code. There existed deep rivalry among these states. Consequently there were continuous wars among them which led to the destruction of many of them. Sometimes powerful rulers like Sargon I, Hammurabi, Sargon II, Sennacherib, and Assurbanipal did conquer many of these small states and establish peace and order.

They conquered neighbouring territories as well and founded vast and powerful empires. They hold sway over the land stretching from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea and Egypt. They controlled such big empires with the help of strong armies and highly efficient administrative machinery.

The rulers were generally absolute despots and enjoyed unlimited powers. They led luxurious life but Kings like Gudea, Hammurabi and Nebuchadrezzar always looked after the welfare of their subjects. They built canals and dykes to promote agriculture and constructed roads and bridges to encourage trade and commerce. *Hammurabi's Code of Laws* is one of the greatest contribution of Mesopotamia to the world. *Assyrians were pioneers in the field of founding large empires.*

2. Dominance of Religion. Religion dominated the Mesopotamian society. In the beginning there were priest-kings who performed both religious as well as the administrative functions. Later on when the kingdom grew larger, the ruling class was separated from the priestly-class. Even then the priests enjoyed great respect in the society. They were very wealthy and powerful and the ruling class had to seek their help to stabilize their position.

People worshipped many gods. The chief among them were Enlil, Marduk, Assur, Ishtar etc. The Mesopotamians had built many temples of these Gods. Such temples were called the '*Ziggurats*'. They were decorated with the statues of many gods. These temples had their own importance. They were the centres of education and were also used as observatories by the astrologers to study the stars and the planets. Sometimes these temples also served as centres of trade.

In short, it can be said that the religion of the Mesopotamian people was confined to temples, gods, goddesses and priests.

3. Social Life and Way of Living. Society in Mesopotamia was generally divided into three classes—the upper class, the middle class and the lower class or the slaves. The upper class was comprised of priests and nobles who led a very luxurious life. The life of the middle class people was also happy. It consisted of the landlords, the traders and the craftsmen. The slaves formed the lower strata of society. Though they were not very well-off yet their life was not so miserable as it was during the middle ages. Women occupied a high position in the society and were held in great esteem. They could hold property and enjoy great freedom.

4. Cultivation and Other Occupations The land of Mesopotamia was very fertile as it was irrigated by the two rivers, the Euphrates and the Tigris. They also constructed dykes and reservoirs for irrigation purposes. They grew wheat, barley, vegetables and fruits. According to H.A. Davies "*Mesopotamians were the first to grow wheat, and it is their, one of the greatest contributions to the world civilization*" But during the period of the Assyrian

ascendency not much attention was paid to the cultivation of wheat and other crops as their main occupation was fighting the wars.

The craftsmen like blacksmiths, goldsmiths, and weavers etc. were very skilful. The credit for the invention of *the wheel* also goes to the people of Mesopotamia. It worked wonders and helped a lot in the advancement of culture and civilization. The world is indebted to them for this.

To encourage trade and commerce the people of Mesopotamia invented many coins, weights and measures. They were well-versed in keeping accounts. They lent money on interest. Perhaps they were the first people in the world who issued receipts and bills in business transactions.

5. Art. Due to lack of stone, wood and different metals, the art could not flourish in Mesopotamia as much as in Egypt. Still some rulers built vast and beautiful temples. Most of them have been destroyed as they were made of wood and 'katchcha' bricks. They were, however, decorated with coloured and enameled tiles. Their greatest contribution in the field of art is the introduction of various architectural forms such as the arch, columns and vaults. The Assyrians have given some unique sculpture to the world. They look very life-like and full of vigour and action. The vigour and the action shown in the hunting and war scenes have not been surpassed even by the great Greeks. Their seals also reveal the high standard of skill of the craftsmen.

6. Art of Writing, Literature, Science and Education. The greatest contribution of the Mesopotamians to the world civilization is the *art of writing*. Most of the writers are of the view that the Mesopotamians and not the Egyptians were the inventors of the art of writing. It was in use there in 4,000 B.C. They began with the drawing of pictures. Since the pictures took a long time to draw, they shortened them into signs. Later the signs came to stand for the sounds of the words. They wrote on little tablets of clay with a tool of reed or bone. It had a wedge-shaped point so their writing came to be known as wedge-shaped or 'Cuneiform'. They had prepared more than 350 signs. After completing the writing they dried the tablets in the sun. They wrote from right to left. They, however, did not use papyrus like those of the Egyptians. Thousands of such tablets have been discovered in Mesopotamia which throw a good deal of light on the civilization of Mesopotamia.

Along with the art of writing, *literature* also developed in Mesopotamia. In the ruins of the ancient Sumerian city of Tello and Babylonian city of Nineveh, big libraries containing thousands of tablets have been dug up. They reveal that the people of Mesopotamia had great interest in the literature. Their vast literature consists of stories, epics, poems and hymns etc. The Epic of Gilgamesh is famous all over the world and is compared with the 'Paradise Lost' written by the great English poet Milton.

The Mesopotamians had also made encouraging progress in the field of Mathematics, Astronomy and Medicine. *They were expert in Mathematics and were perhaps the first to develop Algebra and Sixty Geometry.* was the unit in their system of numerals. They first of all divided an hour into sixty minutes and a minute into seconds sixty. They also divided the circle into 360° . They invented the digits of 1, 10 and 100. They were very much advanced in astronomy. According to **George Guest**, "*Babylonia can be called the birth place of astronomy because every town there had an observatory to study the planets and stars.*" The people of Mesopotamia could foretell the dates and timings of the lunar and the solar eclipses. They had given definite names to various stars and planets. Like the Egyptians they also had invented a calendar.

Great importance was also attached to education in Mesopotamia. The ruins of the first school in the world have been discovered in Mesopotamia. The following words had been written on the wall of this school: "*He who shall excell in tablet-writing shall shine like the sun*" These words show the importance of the art of writing in Mesopotamia.

From the above account it is quite easy to estimate the contributions of the civilization of Mesopotamia to the world. In the words of **Will Durant**, "*It was the Mesopotamian civilization which almost created astronomy, added richly to the progress of medicine, established the science of language, prepared the first code of law, taught the Greeks the rudiments of mathematics, physics and philosophy.*"

Summary in a Nut-Shell

1 **The Sumerian Civilization.** It flourished about 5,000 B.C. Azgbau, Ur-Engur and Sargon were the famous Sumerian kings.

(1) *Political Life.* Many city states ; Priest kings called Patesti ; King had to perform many duties; He ruled with the help of officials.

(2) *Social Life.* The Sumerian society was divided into three classes ; Slavery prevailed there ; Women occupied high position

(3) *Economic Life.* Their main occupations were agriculture ; Domestication of animals and trade They were skilled craftsmen. They were the first to cultivate wheat ; Invention of the wheel.

(4) *Religious Life* Worship of many gods ; Enlil was the chief god, Building of temples called Ziggurats, Belief in life after death, Priests occupied high position in society.

(5) *Art.* Introduction of columns, vaults and arch ; Ornamentation of temples and buildings ; Various crafts

(6) *Art of Writing.* Cuneiform writing ; Libraries.

(7) *Literature.* Literature consisted of stories, songs, epics, hymns.

(8) *Sciences.* Great progress in mathematics, astronomy, astrology and medicine. Sixty as the unit in their system of numerals; Division of circle in 360° ; Calendar; Eclipses.

2. **The Babylonian Civilization.** Foundation of the city of Babylon by the Sumerians about 2500 B.C., Hammurabi made it the centre of Babylonian civilization.

(1) *Political Life.* King was representative of God on earth; Hammurabi was a great king; He extended his empire.

(2) *Hammurabi's Code of Laws.* It was based on the principle of 'An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth' 300 Laws.

(3) *Social Life.* Society divided into upper, middle and lower classes; High position of women; Marriage a legal bondage.

(4) *Economic Life.* Agriculture; Domestication of animals, Industry and Commerce; Trade relations with other countries.

Religious Life. Belief in polytheism and worship of many gods; Marduk and Ishtar worshipped everywhere; Construction of beautiful and high temples; Priests highly respected.

(5) *Art.* Buildings not so beautiful and massive as in Egypt; Art of Painting and Sculpture not much developed; Artistic seals, Various crafts; Hanging Gardens.

(6) *Art of Writing, Literature, Sciences and Education.* Babylonians adopted cuneiform writing of the Sumerians; Mythology and epics were the favourite forms of literature; Gilgamesh was the greatest epic; Development of Algebra and Geometry. Invention of digits 1, 10, 100; Establishment of observatories to observe planets, Coins, weights and measures; Knowledge of medicine; Great stress on education and handwriting.

3. **The Assyrian Civilization.** (1) Assyrians were a nomadic tribe of the Semites who lived in the northern mountains of Mesopotamia; They conquered Mesopotamia about 1,600 B.C.; Sargon II and Assur Banipal were the great kings

(2) *Military and Political Organizations.* War-like people; Arms and weapons, Powerful army, Cruel and destructive policy; Pioneers of imperialism; Highly centralized government; Power of the king unlimited, Military State.

(3) *Social Life.* Two classes—-independent citizens and slaves; Luxurious life of the nobles; Miserable condition of the slaves; Women respected; Warriors occupied high position.

(4) *Economic Life.* Fighting as main occupation; Cultivation of Land; Plundering and looting.

(5) *Religious Life.* Idol-worship ; Assur Chief god ; Belief in magic and charms

(6) *Art and Literature.* Beautiful city of Nineveh ; Construction of beautiful palaces and temples ; Sculpture was very life-like and real , Engraving hunting and war scenes on stone , Making of glass ; Great interest in learning and education.

4 Chief Features of the Mesopotamian Civilization. (1) City states and Hammurabi's code of laws (2) Dominance of religion (3) Three classes in society, respect of women (4) First to cultivate wheat and invent wheel , Agriculture, trade and crafts (5) Introduction of architectural forms in art such as arch, vault and columns ; Unique sculpture (6) Cuneiform writing ; Development of literature ; Progress in mathematics, astronomy and medicine ; Attached great importance to education and learning.

University and other Important Questions

1. Discuss the importance of the Sumerians in World History.
(B. U. 1957)
2. Write what you know about the early Babylonian Civilization.
(B U. 1958, 60)
3. Give an account of the rise and growth of the Assyrian Empire under Sargon II and his successors.
(U.U. 1963, 64)
4. "The civilization of the Euphrates-Tigris valley was in no respect inferior to or less than that of the Nile-Valley." Discuss.
5. What do modern Science and Architecture owe to ancient Babylon ?
6. What important discoveries were made by the ancient Sumerians and the Babylonians ?
7. Form a critical estimate of Hammurabi as a conqueror, as an Administrator and as a Law-giver.
8. Describe the chief features of the civilization of Ancient Mesopotamia.
(All India Hr. Sec. 1967 ; BU. 1968)
9. Who are the makers of the ancient Mesopotamian culture ? What did they achieve in science ?
(B U 1971)
10. Write in about ten lines what you know about the following :—
 - (i) Sargon I
 - (ii) Laws of Hammurabi
(B. U. 1959, 60, 61)
 - (iii) Assurbanipal
 - (iv) Ziggurats
 - (v) Cuneiform writing
 - (vi) Assyrian warfare
 - (vii) Nebuchadrezzar
 - (viii) Contribution of the Assyrian civilization
 - (ix) Babylonian Art

11. Mark the right answer :

- (i) The chief god of the Sumerians was Enlil/Marduk/Assur.
- (ii) Mesopotamian writing is called cuneiform/Hieroglyphic.
- (iii) The people of Mesopotamia wrote on papyrus/clay-tablets
- (iv) Sargon II/Sennacherib/Assurbanipal made Nineveh his capital
- (v) The credit of founding the Sumerian/Babylonian/Assyrian empire goes to Tiglath Pileser

12. Fill in the Blanks :

- (i) Cuneiform writing was used by the.....
 - (ii) The priest king of Mesopotamia was called
 - (iii) The Sumerian temples were called
 - (iv) The Hanging Gardens were built by.....
 - (v) Code of Laws is considered as the most ancient code in the world.
-

Indus Valley Civilization

Until recently it was believed that the history of India started with the Arayns or perhaps according to certain European authors like Cowell, with the advent of the Muslims in this country. But such a supposition has been completely falsified by the recent archaeological discoveries at Harappa, Mohen-jo-daro and other localities in the Indus Valley. It so happened that in 1922 a Buddhist Stupa was noticed at Mohen-jo-daro, in the Larkana district of Sind by *Mr R.D. Bannerji*, the then Archaeological Superintendent of the Western Circle. At about the same time, similar pre-historic remains were discovered by *R.B. Daya Ram* at Harappa in the Montgomery district of the Punjab. These excavations have proved beyond doubt that there flourished a highly civilized community in these regions about 5,000 years ago. As the chief centres of this civilization lie round the river Indus and its tributaries, it is styled as the "Indus Valley Civilization"

1. **Main Centres and Extent** Harappa and Mohen-jo-daro were the two chief centres of this civilization. Harappa is in the Montgomery district, in Pakistan and is situated at a distance of about 100 miles from Lahore. It appears that this city was bigger than Mohen-jo-daro and perhaps it was the capital of the northern region. The second centre, Mohen-jo-daro, lies in the district of Larkana in Sind. It is situated at a distance of about 400 miles from Harappa. Literally it means "The Mound of the Dead". It was a very big city and perhaps it was the capital of the Southern region. From the excavations it appears that it was inhabited seven times one after the other because seven distinct layers have been discovered upto the water level.

The ruins of this civilization have been discovered at various other places besides Harappa and Mohen-jo-daro. The most famous among them are Chanhudaro, Amri, Lothal, Lothar, Naal and Rupar etc. These excavations prove that this civilization flourished over a vast area comprising the whole of Sind and the Punjab, the bulk of Kathiawar, Rajasthan, the valley of N.W.F.P. and the northern part of the Gangetic basin.

2. **Date.** It is difficult to say as to when this civilization flourished in India mainly because the script used by these people has not yet been deciphered. According to Sir John Marshall, the then Director General of Archaeology, this civilization flourished about 5,000 years ago roughly between 3,200 to 2,750 B.C. He came to this conclusion because of certain similarities between the finds of Mohenjo-daro and other ancient civilizations of the world. A great many seals, pots, tablets, fragments of vases have been found at various sites in Mesopotamia, Egypt and Babylonia which are quite similar to those found at Harappa. This implies that the Indus Valley people had very close relations with these people, or in other words all these above mentioned ancient cultures were contemporary with each other. But the Babylonian and Mesopotamian civilizations have been dated between 3250-2750 B.C. and consequently the date of the Indus Valley civilization also falls between 3250-2750 B.C. Secondly, from the excavations, seven layers have been unearthed upto the water-level. If we assign 500 years to each layer even then we come to the conclusion that this civilization flourished about 3,500 B.C.

3. **Well-Planned Cities** The excavation work carried out at various sites has shown without doubt that the Indus Valley people were primarily *urban people*. While examining the ruins of Mohenjo-daro, Harappa and various other sites, one is completely wonder-struck by the remarkable skill of these people in town-planning. It is interesting to note that these ancient cities of the Indus plains are the earliest cities yet discovered, where a scheme of town-planning existed. *"These cities are the earliest"*, says Dr. Mackay, an authority on the subject, *"yet they appear to be so modern"*. The streets were quite broad varying from 9 feet to 34 feet in breadth. The corners of the streets were rounded off perhaps to enable the heavy carts to take a turn in an easy way. These streets intersected each other at right angles and in the words of Dr. Mackay, *"They were so arranged that the prevailing winds could work as a sort of suction-pump thereby clearing the atmosphere automatically."* No building was allowed to encroach upon a public highway. An English visitor who was much impressed by the remarkable skill of the Indus Valley people in town planning remarks, *"I feel myself surrounded by some present day working-town in Lancashire"*.

4 **Well-Planned Drainage System** Perhaps the most striking feature of this civilization is that the Indus Valley people had constructed their drains on very scientific lines. The drains were made of gypsum, lime and mortar. The drainage system of Mohenjo-daro is so elaborate that *"the like of which has not yet been found any where in the world in any other city of the same antiquity"*. House drains emptied themselves into the main drains which ran under the main streets and below many lanes. The Indus Valley people well knew that such drains were not to be left open. They were covered with bricks or stones and were provided with inspection traps and man-holes at regular intervals for inspection. Every care was taken that the house-wives did not

throw refuse or dirt in the drains. Every house had its own soak-pit which collected all the sediments and allowed only water to flow into the street drain. The elaborate drainage system of the Indus Valley people shows that they had developed a high sense of health and sanitation.

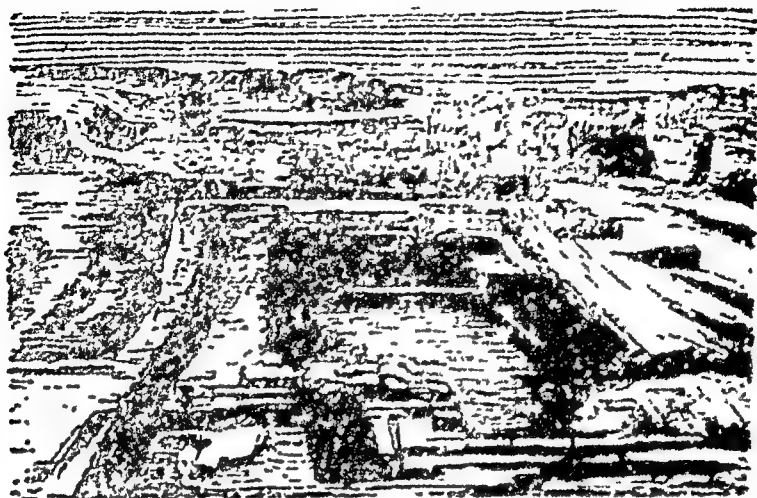
5. Efficient Civic Organisation. It is impossible to say whether a civic body or a single official supervised the civic activities of these towns but they were evidently in *very competent hands*. The careful town planning, elaborate drainage system and adequate water supply would indicate a civic organisation quite unknown elsewhere in the ancient world. No pottery-kiln was allowed to be built within the four-walls of the city. Buildings were neither allowed to encroach on a public highway nor were they allowed to be constructed in a haphazard way. Lamp posts at intervals indicate the existence of *street-lighting*. There were special '*serais*' constructed for the travellers and a *system of watch and ward* at night also existed. There were special trenches constructed outside every city for the *rubbish* to be thrown in them. Trees and plants were encouraged to be grown within the enclosures of the city. All these things pre-suppose a highly advanced state of civic authority and indicate that the people had developed a high civic sense.

6. Art and Architecture. The Indus Valley people had made great progress in the field of art.

(a) *Architecture.* The Indus Valley people had made buildings of various sizes which were *plain and solid rather than beautiful and decorative*. They had constructed three types of buildings—dwelling houses, shrines or public halls and public baths. Dwelling houses are many in number. While smallest have no more than two rooms, the largest are so vast as to appear almost as palaces. That most of these houses were double-storeyed, is quite clear from the marks of stair-ways leading to the upper storey. They were made of baked bricks and mud-mortar. Sometimes when strength was required, lime and gypsum-mortar was also used. The houses were furnished with paved floors and were provided with doors and windows. The roofs were made of mud, reed and wood. It is specially noteworthy that almost every house had its own wells, bathrooms, courtyards, drains and kitchens.

Some public buildings have also been found. One of them is a high *pillared hall*, 80 feet square, which was perhaps used as an assembly hall to transact the business of the state. Another such structure is a *state-granary* about 200 feet by 50 feet, which is further sub-divided into smaller storage blocks for storing different types of grains. But the most important is the *Great-Bath* (at Mohen-jo-daro) which still excites our curiosity even after the lapse of about 5,000 years. The actual bathing pool is about 39 feet in length, 23 feet in breadth and 9 feet deep. It is suggested that this bath was used by the general public on certain religious

festivals. The pool is provided by galleries and rooms on all sides and perhaps also with a 'hammam'. It has a flight of steps at either end and is fed by a well nearby. Every attempt was



Great Public Bath, Mohen-jodaro.

made to make it strong and water-tight. Many thick layers of well-baked bricks laid in gypsum-mortar were joined together for the purpose of making the whole construction very very strong. The solidity of its construction is amply borne out by the fact that it has successfully withstood the ravages of time for full 5,000 years.

(b) *Art of Sculpture*—Many statues and figurines, both of animals and men, that have been found at various sites in the Indus Valley, clearly prove that these people had made a great progress in the art of sculpture. Among these statues, those of a young bull, a strong watch-dog, a shawl-wearing yogi, a dancing girl with her hand on her hip and a dancer standing on his right leg while raising his left leg in front, are worthy of note. All these statues faithfully display bodily features and look quite life-like and realistic. The statue of the dancer is so beautifully executed that **Dr. Tripathi** remarks, "*Its pose is so full of movement that there is hardly any parallel to it even among the sculptures of the historic period.*"

(c) *Art of Carving*:—The Indus Valley people were also fully conversant with the art of carving. Their engravings of various animals on the numerous seals are very remarkable. The treatment of animals like the buffalo, the bison, the rhinoceros, the tiger, the deer and especially the humped bull is superb and full of realism. These figures on ivory, soap-stone, leather, metal and wood, leave no room for any doubt that the Indus Valley people possessed the artistic skill of a very high order in carving.

(d) *Art of Pottery.* The Indus Valley people appear to have made a great progress in the art of pottery. Some very beautiful specimens of coloured as well as glazed pottery have come down to us which indicate that the Indus Valley potter was a skilled craftsman who could give both colour, shape and delicacy to his pots. The glazed pottery which he turned out is generally regarded as *the earliest example of its kind in the ancient world.*"

(e) *Art of Painting.* The Indus Valley people were very fond of painting. Different kinds of figures and designs were drawn on earthen wares and utensils. The Indus Valley people had also achieved a great skill in drawing the figures of both men, animals and various other objects of nature.

7. Social and Economic Life of the People. The ruins of Harappa and especially those of Mohen-jo-daro tell us a good deal about the Indus Valley people and provide us a very useful information regarding the social and economic life of the Indus Valley people which can be studied under the following heads :—

(a) *The People, their Race and Script.* It is very difficult to say as to who the Indus Valley people were and to what particular race they belonged. From the inspection of the few skulls and bones that have been found, some scholars have come to the conclusion that they were either Dravidians or a branch of the Indo-Aryans. But some other scholars do not agree with the above views and regard that they were the same as the Sumerians or the Cretans. At present it is not possible to come to any definite conclusion in the absence of any definite evidence. **Dr. Tripathi** suggests that "*we should not be dogmatic over this problem until more conclusive clues are forth-coming.*"

The Indus Valley people had invented some sort of writing but the script they employed has not yet been deciphered.

(b) *Dress and Ornaments.* The discovery of large number of spindles of various sizes indicate that threads, both of cotton and woollen must have been spun in those days. But nothing definite can be said about the dress of the people as no actual specimen of ancient clothings could possibly have survived these 5,000 years. Certain inferences have been drawn from the dress of the statues and carvings on seals. One male figure on a statue shows that generally two garments were worn—an under-garment resembling the modern '*Dhoti*' and a shawl covering the left shoulder and passing below the right shoulder. The female dress was more or less like that of the male.

The ornaments were worn by men and women both rich and poor. Necklaces, fillets, armlets, finger-rings were worn by both the sexes, while girdles, ear-rings and anklets by women alone. These ornaments were of various designs and were made of gold, silver, copper, ivory, precious stones, bones and shells etc.

(c) *Hair-dress, Toilet and Cosmetics* The Indus Valley people were great lovers of beauty. They were not inferior to any one of the modern times as regards fashion, hair-dressing and the use of toilets and cosmetics. They were fully conscious of the various fashions of hair-dressing and wore beads of different styles. It is quite interesting to note that the belles (young maidens) in ancient Sind attended to beauty and toilet culture. It appears that they knew the use of some sort of face-paints, lip-sticks, collyrium (*Surma*), expensive perfumes and other cosmetics.

(d) *Amusements*. The Indus Valley people were alive to the importance of play and pass-time and they found time for amusements. They preferred in-door hobbies to out-door amusements. They were very fond of *dance and music*. The discovery of a large number of dice of various kinds indicate that dicing was a popular game. Hunting, fishing, keeping pet-birds and witnessing bull-fighting were some of their other pastimes. The discovery of a large number of toys and dolls shows that, even children were well provided with play-things.

(e) *Food*. It appears that the diet of these people was quite simple. Wheat, barley, milk-products were the main items of their food. Some scholars suggest that rice also formed a part of their food. Fruit, vegetables, fish and meat were also taken by them.

(f) *Occupations*. As regards their occupations, *agriculture* was the most important occupation. Among other things wheat, barley and cotton were generally cultivated. Domestication of *animals* was very common. The chief domestic animals were the bull, sheep, elephant, pig, buffalo and the camel. They were also familiar with certain wild animals such as the Indian bull, rhinoceros, tiger, bear, hare, squirrel and monkey etc. Spinning and weaving were very common. Pottery—painted, coloured and glazed was an important industry of those days. Trade, both by sea and land with foreign countries like Egypt, Sumeria and Babylonia etc. also flourished.

8 Religion The various articles discovered at different sites in the Indus valley suggest that these people indulged in some sort of image-worship. The most commonly found figurine is that of a female diety who has generally been identified with "*Shakti*" or "*The Mother Goddess*". The people of India, in fact have always held a belief in a female energy as the source of all creation. Side by side with the worship of Mother Goddess, the worship of a male-god "*Shiva Pashupati*" was also very popular in those days. In one particular seal he is shown with three visible faces seated in a yogic posture and with animals on each side; tiger and elephant on the right and buffalo and rhinoceros on its left, with horned deer appearing under the seat. The presence of animals justifies Shiva's title of '*Pashupati*' and the Yogic posture justifies his title of '*Maha-Yogi*'. The three faces of the figure seem to have given

rise to the concept of "*Trimukha*" which is usually associated with Shiva.



Shiva-Pashupati

The worship of certain *trees, birds and animals* also seems to have been prevalent in those days. The elaborate bathing arrangements, marking the city of Mohen-jo-daro, would suggest that *purification by bath* formed a feature of the religion of the Indus Valley people. It will be seen from these characteristics that modern Hinduism is greatly indebted to the Indus Valley culture. There is an organic relationship between the Hinduism of today and the ancient culture of the Indus Valley.

9 Causes of the Disappearance of the Indus Valley Civilization It is not very easy to say as to what specific causes led to the decay and disappearance of the Indus Valley Civilization. Different scholars have given different reasons for its destruction. The Indian floods, climatic changes, spread of desert in the lower Indus Valley, earthquakes, infertility and lastly the invasions of the aggressive tribes etc have been given as the possible causes responsible for the destruction of the Indus Valley Civilization.

10. Conclusion In the words of Dr R.K. Mukerjee we may conclude that "*The Indus Valley people gave to the world its*

earliest cities, its first urban civilization, its first town-planning, its first architecture in stone, and bricks as protection against floods, its first example of sanitary engineering and drainage works. To them also belongs the credit for producing some of the earliest specimens of pottery and also inventing what was the most important aid to civilization, the device of cart, to harness the labour force of animals to the production of man's utility."

Points to Remember

1. **Main Centres and Extent.** Mohan-jo-daro and Harappa two big centres. It flourished over vast area comprising Sind and the Punjab, the bulk of Kathiawar, Rajasthan, the valley of N.W.F.P. and the Northern part of the Gangetic plain.

2. **Date.** 3,250 to 2,750 B.C

3. **Well-Planned Cities.** Urban people, remarkable town-planning, arranged roads.

4. **Drainage System.** Scientific and well-planned drainage system, house drains, main drains, protection from refuse and dirt.

5. **Efficient Civic Organisation.** Arrangements in competent hands, adequate water-supply, street lighting, Serais, system of watch and ward, special arrangements for throwing rubbish and growing trees.

6. **Art and Architecture.** Architecture, Sculpture, Carving, Pottery, Painting etc.

7. **Social and Economic Life.** The people—their race and script; Dress and ornaments; Hair-dress, toilet and cosmetics; Amusements, Food and occupations

8. **Religion.** Worship of Mother Goddess; Shiva Pashupati; Trees, animals and birds, Purification by Bath; Organic relationship with Hinduism

9. **Causes of Disappearance.** Floods, climatic changes, spread of desert, earth-quakes, infertility, foreign invasions.

University & Other Important Questions

1. What do you know about the most important features of the Indus valley? What led to its decline? (C.B.S.E. 1962, 71; Pb. Hr. Sec. 1962)
2. (a) Write briefly the main features of the Indus Valley civilization.
(All India Hr. Sec., 1967, 68; Pb. Hr. Sec. 1962)
(b) What contribution does the Indus Valley civilization make to the history of the world? (Pb. Hr. Sec. 1962)
3. What light does the recent discoveries throw on the life of the people of the Indus Valley? (Pb. Hr. Sec. 1965)
4. Give a brief account of the town-Planning of Mohen-jo-daro.

5. What were the religious beliefs of the Indus Valley people ?
6. Form an estimate of the Indus Valley civilization with special reference to town-planning, religion, art and Industry.—
7. Describe briefly the salient features of the Indus Valley civilization and give a brief account of the people in that age.
8. Write in about ten lines what you know about the following :
(1) Religion of the Indus Valley people. (2) Drainage System (3) Great Public Bath. (4) Art. (5) Main Centres of the Indus Valley Civilization. (6) Trade and Industry. (7) Social and Economic life of the people.
9. Answer the following in 'Yes' or No.
(1) The Indus Valley Civilization was an urban civilization.
(2) The Indus Valley Civilization was discovered in 1931.
(3) Harappa is situated in the Montgomery district.
(4) The Aryan Civilization is older than the Indus Valley Civilization.
(5) Mohen-jo-daro is called as the "Mound of the Dead".
10. Fill in the blanks :—
(1) The Indus Valley people worshipped
(2) The Indus Valley people had trade relations with
(3) These people liked games.
(4) Every house of the Indus Valley people had

The Aryan Civilization

SECTION 1—THE ARYANS AND THEIR ORIGINAL HOME

1 The Aryans The history of India is generally regarded as the history of the Aryans in India. Their occupation of India is the most interesting as well as the most momentous event in the Indian history. They were tall, fair-complexioned and quite an attractive people. They were highly civilized and far ahead of other races of their times. Even today many big nations of the world take pride in calling themselves the true descendants of the Aryans. A large number of Indians, Persians and many other nations of the world such as the English, the Germans, the French, the Spanish etc. are the descendants of the Aryans. When they left their common abode some of them came to India and began to be called Indo-Aryans while others migrated to the western countries.

2. Original Home of the Aryans. Regarding the original home of the Aryans there is a good deal of controversy among the scholars. (1) *Mr. A.C. Dass*, a Bengali historian of the 20th century, while getting inspiration from the religious books, gives Sapt-Sindhu (the modern Punjab) as the original home of the Aryans. Various Indian writers such as *Babu Sampurnanand*, *K.M. Munshi* and *Ganga Nath Jha* support this theory. They believe the Aryans to be the natives of the India. (2) From the close study of the Rigveda and Zend Avesta (an ancient Book of the Persians) *Bul Gangadhar Tilak* came to the conclusion that the original home of the Aryans was Arctic region, a tract between the North Pole and the Arctic circle. (3) *Swami Dayanand* was of the view that the original home of the Aryans was Tibet. (4) *Dr. P. Giles* and *Prof. Macdonell* hold that the original home of the Aryans was in South-East Europe comprising Austria, Hungary and Bohemia. They have come to this conclusion after a careful study of the Indo-European languages. (5) Another important theory regarding the original home of the Aryans, i.e., the Central Asian Theory, is put forward by *Prof. Max Muller*, a great German scholar of comparative languages. According to him the ancestors of the Indians, the Persians, the Greeks, the Romans, the

Celts once lived in a common place because some fundamental words of common use spoken by these people even upto this day bear close resemblance to each other. This common place, according to Max Muller, was Central Asia. The Central Asian Theory is considered to be the most plausible theory. Some of them migrated westward and settled in various European countries while others took the eastern routes and settled in Persia and Asia.

3 Advent of the Aryans in India It is very difficult to say as to when the Aryans migrated to this country. According to *Jacobi* and *Tilak* the Aryans were occupying India about 6,000 B.C. or at least 4,000 B.C. According to *V. A. Smith*, "*The date is carried back too far*". *Prof. Max Muller* holds that Aryans migrated to this country in about 1200 B.C. But the view which is generally accepted these days is that of *D. R. K. Mukerjee* who holds that the Aryans were occupying India in about 2,500 B.C. and the Rigvedic period spreads from 2,500 to 2,000 B.C. This theory is half way between the two extremes and hence is easily acceptable to most of the modern scholars. They came to this country not all at once but, they migrated in smaller groups over a longer period. They came here one after the other, the later pushing the former still deeper in the country.

4. Spread of the Aryans. The Aryans first crossed the North-West passes and then settled in the modern Punjab, Sind and North-West Frontier Province. But this was not an easy task because they had to face the Dravidians. These people fought against the Aryans at every step and thus checked their advancement for a long time. Their dogged resistance is referred to in the Rigveda. In the end they had to bow before the superior might of the Aryans. Many of them submitted and were allowed to live with the Aryans as slaves, while those, who valued their independence above everything, retired into the jungles and other inaccessible parts. At this time the Aryans were still living in that area which came to be known as Sapt-Sindhu. They had not as yet advanced to the Gangetic Valley. For some time the different tribes of the Aryans began to quarrel with one another and so their advancement was checked for a time. The Rigveda refers to a bloody battle of Ten kings, where the Bharata tribe had to face a confederacy of ten kings but in the end the former came out victorious under the guidance of the eminent Rishi Vasistha. This age is known as the "*Early Vedic Age*" in the history of India.

Later on, the Aryans moved East-ward and North-ward and occupied the area now represented by U.P., Bihar, Orissa, Bengal and other parts of Northern India. They gave the name "*Aryavarta*" to all this region which they conquered after the struggle of many thousands of years (2500-700 B.C.). This period when the Aryans settled in the Gangetic Valley, is known as the "*Later Vedic Period*". It was during this period that the Aryans had to fight another bloody battle of the Mahabharata and Lord Krishna gave his high philosophy now contained in the "*Bhagavad Gita*". But now, the Aryans had no fear of the resistance of the native tribes whom they called "*Dasyus*".

SECTION 2—THE RIGVEDIC CIVILIZATION

In forming an idea of the Rigvedic Civilization or the social, economic, religious and political life of the Early Aryans, the Rigveda is undoubtedly the most important source of our information. It is from the study of this great work that we have come to know some of the very interesting facts about the Early Aryans.

1. Social Life :—

(1) *Family Life.* The foundation of the social life in the Rigvedic age was the family. The eldest male member, who was known as "*Grihyapati*", exercised full authority over all the members of his family, both male and female. It was his duty to perform all the religious ceremonies, to give offerings and to recite the sacred hymns along with other members of his family. All the members of the family lived in complete co-operation and affection was seldom lost among them. They showed great hospitality to their guests. Their family-life was thus marked by simplicity and happiness.

(2) *Position of Women.* In the Vedic period, women enjoyed a very respectable position in the society. A woman was considered to be the mistress of the house and she took part in every religious ceremony. Most of the religious ceremonies were considered incomplete unless women joined their husbands. There was no '*Purdah*' system and consequently not much restrictions were imposed on their movements. They were given high education and some of them like Visvavara, Ghosha and Uppala even composed the '*mantras*' of the Rigveda. They were allowed a certain amount of freedom in choosing their husbands. Ordinarily a man married but one wife, though among the princely class polygamy was not probably, unknown. The ties of marriage were held sacred and indissoluble. Widows were, however, allowed to re-marry, probably in such cases where the dead had left no son. The unhealthy customs of child marriage, '*Sati*' and slavery were unknown.

(3) *Food and Dress.* The food of the Rigvedic Aryans was very simple but very nourishing. Besides wheat and barley cakes, milk was the chief article of their food, together with its products like butter, ghee, curd and cheese. Fruits and vegetables also formed a considerable portion of the dietary of the Rigvedic Indians. As regards meat it was that of sheep and goats and was rarely eaten by the people. The cow was deemed '*aghnya*' (not to be slaughtered) because of her usefulness. They were very fond of "*Soma Juice*" an intoxicating drink, the use of which was, however, not considered as something bad. It was even offered to gods. Another popular drink was "*Sura*" an extremely intoxicating drink, the use of which was strongly condemned, as it led the people to crime and godlessness.

The *dress* of the Aryans, too, was very simple and generally consisted of three parts, namely an under-garment (*Nivi* or *dhoti*),

a garment (*Vasa* or shirt), and an over-garment (*Adhivasa* or mantle or cloak of cotton and wool). Turbans were also commonly used by them. Sometimes, these garments were beautifully embroidered and adorned with gold. The people further adorned their persons with gold and silver ornaments, garlands and wreaths of flowers and jewels etc. Ornaments were worn both by men and women.

(4) *Games and Amusements* The Rigvedic Aryans also found leisure for enjoyment. They were fond of merry-making and festivities. Their favourite amusements were horse-racing, chariot racing and hunting. They had also a great fascination for gambling with dice, though this game has been referred to in the Rigveda as leading to ruin and slavery. One gambler laments in these words, "*My wife rejects me and her mother hates me.*" The Aryans also enjoyed dancing and music to the accomplishment of *Vina* (lute) *Vana* (flute) and *dundubhi* (drum). Dr. Keith holds that dramatic spectacles though religious in character were also known in the Rigvedic age.

(5) *No Caste System* It is held by most of the scholars that the caste system did not exist in the Rigvedic times. "*I do not find*", remarks Dr. V A Smith, "*any indication of the existence of caste in the Rigvedic times*". The people were roughly classified under four "*Varnas*" (or classes)—Brahmans, Kashatriyas, Vaishyas and Sudras—to perform the various functions in a better way. There was little restriction, typical of caste in its mature form. There was hardly any taboo on inter-marriage and change of occupation. The following hymn is worthy of note in this connection :

"*I am a poet, my father is a doctor, and my mother is a grinder of corn*".

2 Economic Life.

(1) *Agriculture* The Rigvedic Aryans were primarily an agriculturist people. Their principal occupation was the cultivation of land. The agricultural products were wheat, barley and rice, but cotton and oil seeds were also grown. The water for irrigation came from wells, canals and sometimes from lakes, but generally the people depended on rain. The fields were cultivated by a pair of oxen.

(2) *Domestication of Animals.* The domestication of animals was their another important profession. Their wealth and property depended upon the possession of large number of animals especially cows which were held in great esteem. Besides cows other domesticated animals were bulls, oxen, horses, sheep, goats, asses and dogs.

(3) *Trade* Though primarily agriculturist people, the Aryans were not indifferent to trade and commerce. The exchange of articles on the system of barter was in vogue and generally the cow was regarded as the standard of value. In other words the value of

things was measured in terms of cows. According to some scholars (like Dr. Apte) a sort of coinage known as "*Mishka*" was also prevalent in those days. Trade was mainly carried on by land but trade by sea was not quite unknown.

(4) *Other Occupations and Industries.* Besides the above occupations, the Aryans indulged in many other professions and industries. The chief industries referred to in the Rigveda are those of carpenters, goldsmiths, blacksmiths, weavers, leathers, potters and physicians etc. All these people worked for the benefit of the people as a whole. None of these professions was regarded as inferior and below dignity. Anybody could choose any profession according to his sweet-will.

3. Religious Life :—

(1) *Nature Worship.* The religion of the Rigvedic Aryans was in essence very simple. It has often been described as the worship of Nature leading to Nature-Gods. The Aryans were much attracted by the bright and the beautiful, and the grand and the terrible aspects, of nature sometimes, represented by the Varuna, the Surya, the Indra, the Vayu and sometimes by the Agni, and the Prithvi, etc. They worshipped these powers of nature as gods so that they might grant them their prayers. Varuna and Indra were their chief gods whom they worshipped with great care and devotion. Varuna, the sky god *par excellence*, is the sovereign of the universe. He has knowledge of everything and nothing is concealed from him. Indra, god of rain, thunder and war, protects the Aryans from their enemies and bestows on them wealth and prosperity.

(2) *Conception of one God.* Though the Rigvedic Aryans worshipped many gods yet they never forgot that God is one. In fact the many were worshipped as manifestations of the one. They worshipped many in one and one in many. The following hymn in the Rigveda makes it quite clear that the Aryans had the full idea of one supreme god, though addressed with different names "*They call him Indra, Mitra, Varuna and Agni, to what is one, the poets gave many a name.*"

(3) *Chanting of Hymns.* The way in which the Aryans worshipped their gods was a very simple one. For this purpose they had neither built any temple nor made any idols. They performed their worship in the open area. Chanting of hymns, in which all the members of the family took an active part, was an important feature of such a worship in the open air.

(4) *Sacrifice and Yajna.* Another important feature of the religion of the Rigvedic people was the performance of sacrifices and daily prayers. These sacrifices, which were performed daily were very simple one and could easily be performed by the members of the family themselves. In these sacrifices, offerings of milk, grains and ghee etc. were made. Besides these daily sacrifices, there were some elaborate or grand sacrifices which were performed on some special festivals. They were very costly and could be perfor-

med by the kings or the aristocratic people. They were performed by a large number of priests and continued for several days and sometimes for several months. It is held that along with the offerings of milk, grain and ghee, etc. the offerings of flesh and the 'Soma' were also made in these elaborate sacrifices. These sacrifices and 'Yajnas' were performed with great interest and care to invoke the blessings of the gods.

4. Political Organization and Government :—

(1) *The Status of the King* The Rigvedic Aryans lived in tribes called "*Janas*". Each Jana had its own ruler who was generally called '*Rajan*'. Kingship was generally hereditary but elected monarchies were not unknown. When the situation demanded, the people could select a worthy monarch of their own choice from among the members of the royal family or the nobility. The office of the king was thus a creation of the people and was held conditionally. He was not an autocrat but there were many limitations on his powers. In order to save himself from his enemies and greedy relatives, he had to win the confidence of his people. The main duties of the king were to secure internal peace, to protect his people from foreign invasions, to lead his tribe in times of war, administer justice and to maintain a large number of priests to perform various sacrifices for him as well as for his subjects. In return for these services the people rendered him obedience and gave him voluntary gifts. Moreover, from the conquered tribes some sort of tributes were also taken.

(2) *Ministers and the King*. The king was assisted in the conduct of his administration by a number of ministers e.g. "*Purohit*" and "*Senani*" etc. The '*Purohit*' was religious adviser of the king and enjoyed a very dignified position. '*Senani*' was the leader of the army and helped the king against his enemies. The king had no doubt other officials but we have no detailed knowledge of them. These ministers and officials were all men of high character and thus exercised a sort of great check on the autocracy of the king. Without their help the king was helpless as a bird without its wings.

(3) *The Sabha and the Samiti—the popular Assemblies*. The king's autocracy was also somewhat limited by the two popular assemblies—the Sabha and the Samiti. As to their composition and functions nothing definite can be said. But the accepted view is that the Samiti was the National Assembly of the people while the Sabha was the Council of Elders, wherein only selected few were called. In these popular assemblies free discussions were held and decisions by the vote of majority were made. These assemblies worked more or less on democratic lines. The people did not believe in absolute kingship. They enjoyed full liberty in those days, when it was quite unknown elsewhere in the world.

(4) *Mode of Warfare*. The Rigveda also gives us some idea of the mode of warfare. The king and his nobles fought on chariots, while the common soldiers fought on foot. The warrior generally

wore a coat-of-armours, made up of metal-plates, sewn together, helmet and a hand or arm-guard. The chief offensive weapons were bows and arrows, swords, lances, spears and axes. Sometimes poisoned arrows were also used but the Aryans never attacked an unarmed or wounded enemy. It was regarded as an act much below their dignity to kill those who did not take part in the battle or to attack the sleeping enemy. In this way the Aryans had developed a high standard of warfare.

SECTION 3—THE VEDIC LITERATURE

The Vedic Literature is a term having vast scope. The word 'Veda' comes from the root "*Viḍ*," to know; it means wisdom or knowledge. The wisdom and knowledge of the Aryans is contained in their sacred literature, which is collectively termed as the Vedic Literature. It includes not only the four Vedas but also some other works such as the Brahmanas, the Upanishads and the Aranyakas etc.

On the basis of the period of composition, the whole Vedic Literature can easily be classified under two heads—(A) Early Vedic Literature and (B) Later Vedic Literature. Sometimes the literature of the first kind is also named as "*Sruti*" and that of the later as "*Smṛiti*."

(A) Early Vedic Literature :—

(1) **The Vedas** :—They are the oldest and at the same time the most sacred books of the Aryans. A great majority of the Indian people believe that they were not written by man but revealed to "*Rishis*" by God. The Vedas are four in number

(1) **The Rig Veda** :—It is the most ancient Veda and according to some historians (like R. K. Mukerjee) it was written in about 2,500 B C. It contains 1,028 collection of hymns, all sung in praise of different objects of Nature

(2) **The Sama Veda** :—It contains hymns that were meant to be sung at the *Soma* sacrifice by a special class of priests called '*Udgatris*' or singing priests

(3) **The Yajur Veda** :—It contains '*mantras*' that are to be followed in different sacrifices

(4) **The Atharva Veda** :—It contains hymns dealing with spells and magical charms for the healing of diseases, the restoration of harmony, the control of demons and evil spirits etc.

These Vedas have proved to be very useful to the historians in providing them important information regarding the social, economic, religious and political life of the Aryans.

(2) **The Brahmanas** They are the prose treatises on the Vedic '*mantras*'. They are a sort of exhaustive notes explaining the value of sacrifices to the common people. They contain old legends and stories about some great personalities mentioned in the Vedas. Occasionally some valuable information as to the social and political state of India may also be gleaned from the Brahmanas.

(3) **The Aranyakas** The Aranyakas or '*Forest-Books*' are the concluding portions of the Brahmanas and are so called because they were specially meant for the guidance of the jungle-dwelling hermits. They deal with mysticism and philosophy rather than elaborate rituals and sacrifices.

(4) **The Upanishads** They are the main source of Indian philosophy. In them an attempt has been made to throw light on certain difficult philosophical questions such as the true nature of God (*Brahma*) and the soul (*Atma*) and the exact relation that exists between the two. The doctrine of '*Karma*,' '*Mukti*' '*Maya*' and '*Transmigration of Soul*' are found fully elaborated here.

The Upanishads, because of their high philosophy, have found an important place in the history of the world literature. According to Max Muller, '*The Upanishads will always maintain a place in the literature of the world, among the most astounding production of human mind in any country and in any age.*' They have become so popular that they have been translated into so many foreign languages.

They are about 300 in number but about ten of them have proved very valuable. They have helped as a lot in forming an idea of the social and religious conditions and philosophy of the ancient Aryans.

(B) Later Vedic Literature :—

1. **The Sutras.** With the passage of time many new social customs developed which were collected in new books known as Sutras. They have been sub-divided into three different classes—

(1) *Srauta-Sutras*. They deal with great vedic sacrifices '*Soma*' and other religious matters.

(2) *Griha-Sutras*. They deal with the various duties or, '*Sanskaras*' that a family-man has to perform during his whole life from birth till death. They also deal with many medical and magical formulas for averting diseases and disaster.

(3) *Dharma-Sutras*. They are chiefly concerned with society rather than with family. From their study an idea of the ordinary laws and practices of ancient Indian-society can be formed.

2. **Vedangas and Upavedas.** Vedangas, as is clear from their very name, were a part of the Vedic texts and were concerned with their preservation. They are six in number and deal with religious practices (kalpa). Pronunciation (*Siksha*), grammar (*Vyakarna*), etymology or science of words (*Nirukta*), meter (*Chhandas*) and astronomy (*Jyotisha*).

Besides, there are some other texts known as Upa-Vedas. They treat secular subjects, namely, medicine, magic, art and architecture. The important among them are (i) Ayurveda, dealing with medicine, (ii) Dhanurveda, dealing with the art of the warfare, (iii) Ghandharvaveda, dealing with the art of music (iv) Shilpaveda, dealing with art and literature.

3. **Six Schools of Indian Philosophy.** They are also known as Darshanas or Shastras. An effort has been made in them to explain certain difficult philosophical questions concerning God, soul, death and birth.

(1) *Sankhya Shastra of Kapila.* In this Shastra, Rishi Kapila denies the existence of God and holds that matter and soul are the only two realities.

(2) *Yoga Shastra of Patanjali.* Patanjali admits the existence of God, besides soul and matter. God can be achieved through Yoga.

(3) *Nayaya Shastra of Gautama.* Gautama holds that God can only be realized through right thinking and right knowledge.

(4) *Vaisheshik Shastra of Kanad.* Kanad holds that the whole world is made up of atoms which never die.

(5) *Purvā Mimamsa of Jamini.* In it Jamini throws a good deal of light on the sacrifices and religious rites of the Aryans which are essential for the attainment of "*Mukti*"

(6) *Uttar Mimamsa of Vyasa.* In this work Vyasa advocates the worship of god. According to him all matter is unreal. God is omnipresent and all powerful, and hence, he alone should be worshipped.

4. **The Puranas.** They are old books of Hindus. They are 18 in number and each has five sections. The fifth and the last section dealing with the history of old dynasties of kings is important for the purpose of history. Though we cannot believe in all that is given in the Puranas, yet with patience the historians have been able to get important information from them and fill in many left-out gaps.

5. **The Epics** The two great Epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, throw a good deal of light on some great heroes of the Aryans. It is from their study that we are able to know a good deal about the social, religious, economic and political life of the Later Vedic Aryans.

6. Dharma Shastras. The Dharma Shastras like Manu Smṛiti, Viṣṇu Smṛiti, Yajñavalkya Smṛiti and Narada Smṛiti etc. have proved very useful to us in forming an idea of the laws and judicial procedure of the Aryans. Manu Smṛiti is the most important of all. In it the four main castes and their particular duties have been explained fully. Man's life has been divided into four stages (*Aśramas*), and the duties that he has to perform in each stage are vividly described. A good deal of light is also thrown on the laws and punishment, partnership and loans, and various other subjects dealing with general law and judicial procedure of the people in ancient India.

SECTION 4—LATER VEDIC CIVILIZATION

The period which falls between the end of the Rigvedic period and the rise of Buddhism—roughly between 2,000 to 700 B.C.—is generally known as the Later Vedic Period. During this period the Aryans brought the whole of the Northern India under their sway and penetrated into South India also. The three Vedas other than the Rīgveda, the Brahmanas, the Upanishads, the Sūtras, the Puranas, the Rāmāyana and the Mahābhārata help us a lot to form an idea of the life of the Aryans during this period.

1. Political Life :—

(1) *Expansion of the Aryans* The Aryans had now spread from the Punjab to the internal parts of India. They were now spreading in every direction, colonizing the east, south and north. They had now completely occupied the Gangetic Plain and after penetrating the Vindhya forests they had established powerful kingdoms in the Deccan to the north of Godavari (according to Dr. Raj Chaudhri),

(2) *Rise of Powerful Kingdoms* During the Rigvedic period the Aryans had built only small kingdoms, as they were always busy fighting the non-Aryans. But now they had crushed the resistance of the non-Aryans and had established such powerful kingdoms as Kuru, Panchala, Kosala, Magadha, Kasi and Anga etc. Some ambitious kings, after conquering vast territories had begun to perform "*Aśhvamedha Yajnas*" and assume the title of "*Samrat*" or king of kings. The size and power of the different states had greatly extended.

(3) *Increase in the King's Powers.* The establishment of vast empires led to the growth of the royal power. The Sabha and the Samiti were now not powerful enough to check the power of the kings. The office of the monarch had now become more or less hereditary. Hopkins thus, justly remarks, "*Both the people and the priests were silent in the face of force*". But even then

the king took great interest in the good will of his people. His main duties were to protect his people both from internal disorders and external invasions, to punish the criminals and to administer equal justice to all etc.

(4) *Elaboration of the Administrative Machinery.* The growth of the royal power coupled with the increase in the size of the states ultimately led to the elaboration of the administrative machinery. In the Rigvedic Period we hear of three main assistants of the king in the *Purohita*, the *Senani* and the *Gramini*. But now in addition to these officials many new assistants of the king like the treasurer, collector, charioteer, chamberlain and superintendent, etc., had come into prominence. The extension in the territorial limits of a state now led to the appointment of local governors.

(5) *A Little Change in the Mode of Warfare.* A little change had also come in the mode of warfare. In addition to the Kshatriyas the king had now maintained a regular army. This need had arisen because of the continuous wars that a king had to fight for the extension of his empire. Now the elephants had come into use in the battle-field and many new weapons had been invented by this time.

2. Social Life :—

(1) *A Little Change in the Position of Women.* There was however, a little change in the position of women. Woman was now gradually losing her position of importance in the religious and social sphere. She was not allowed to take part in the political life by attending the assembly meetings like men. Women were even excluded from inheriting the property. The king and the nobility had now begun to marry more than one wife. The birth of a daughter was now regarded as a source of misery. High education was, however, imparted to women. The princesses were allowed to choose their husbands. The re-marriage of widows was prevalent and the practice of *Sati*, child-marriage, *purdah* were not heard of.

(2) *Supremacy of the Kshatriyas.* The Brahmins or the priestly class, though continued to be respected in the society, had now lost much of their control on the power of the state. All the power of the state had now concentrated in the Kshatriyas. The centre of gravity was the king and not the priest. If there was any difference between the ruler and the priest, it was the priest who yielded.

(3) *Rigidity of the Caste System.* In this period the caste system was becoming somewhat rigid. Day by day it was becoming very difficult to change one's own caste. Many new notions as regarding inter-marriage, inter-dining, inter-mixing and change of occupation had developed and caste became more or less hereditary. Now in place of four main '*Varnas*' many new castes were born, leading to the complexities of the caste system.

(4) *Moral Degradation of the Nobility.* From the study of the later Vedic Literature and particularly the Epics we notice a little degradation of the nobility. The rich and the royal classes had begun to marry many wives. They were also addicted to gambling and drinking intoxicating liquors. Dancing girls and prostitutes were now regarded as a source of great pleasure. To practice all sorts of deceptions and wickedness in the battle-field was now quite common. The Kauravas swooped down to such a wickedness as to burn their enemies alive. Not only this, they slew Arjuna's son (Abhimanyu) in the most treacherous manner. So a little degradation in the Later Vedic society is easily traceable.

(5) *No Outstanding Change in the Life of the Common People.* In the life of a common man no great change appeared. The dress, food and drink along with amusements remained almost the same as in the Rigvedic times. The people lived in villages and small towns, and their main occupation was agriculture as before. The life of an ordinary man was now, however, divided into four stages popularly known as the four *Ashramas*.

3. Economic Life :—

(1) *Agriculture.* The agriculture was the chief occupation of the people. In addition to the cultivation of wheat, barley and rice many new grains such as sesamum (*Tila*) and beans began to be cultivated during this period. Draught and excessive rains were the chief enemies of the farmer. During this period a great progress was doubtlessly made in the methods of cultivation. Some sort of a system of artificial irrigation had now developed. The plough became large and heavy enough to require a team of six or more oxen. The cow-dung had now begun to be used as a manure to increase the production.

(2) *Domestication of Animals.* Being an agriculturist people the Aryans attached a great importance to animals. They were valued both for their milk and agricultural purposes.

(3) *Trade.* Trade was another important occupation of the people during this period. The merchants had by now organized themselves into guilds, which tried their utmost to protect the interests of the merchants. Some sort of coinage in the form of "*Nishka*", "*Satamana*" and "*Krishmana*" had probably come into being. The cow as a unit of value was thus gradually being replaced. The Aryans had by this time come to know the sea and so some historians believe that sea borne trade was probably known to these people.

(4) *Origin of Cities.* The settled life to which the Aryans had become used during this period, gave rise to big cities. In the Rigvedic days there were but few cities and the village was a popular unit of administration. In the Later Vedic Period, however, many great cities like Videha, Kasi, Kausambhi, Ayodhya, Hastinapur and Indraprastha etc. had sprung up.

4. Religious Life

(1) *Emergence of New Gods.* In this period the great gods of the Rigvedic period like Indra, Varuna, Surya etc. receded in the background and many new gods like Vishnu, Shiva, Rama and Krishna had come into prominence. Their worship was becoming very popular day-by-day.

(2) *Complexity in the Religion.* In the Rigvedic days there were not many complexities in the Vedic religion and consequently it was very easy to understand it. But now it became more and more complex and it was somewhat difficult to understand it. New ceremonies and rituals were gaining importance day by day in the religion of the Later Vedic Aryans. In place of simple sacrifices many elaborate sacrifices, lasting for months together, had come into prominence. Dr. Apte remarks "*The whole atmosphere was now pervaded by the smoke of sacrifice and the incense of ritual*".

(3) *Faith in Charms and Spells.* The common people developed a sort of faith in witchcraft, charms, spells and spirits during this period. In order to cure their diseases and destroy their rivals and enemies the people had now begun to depend on magic and charms. This period also saw the rise of snake-worship.

(4) *Faith in the Doctrines of Mukti, Maya, Karma and Transmigration of Soul.* The people had by now begun to realise that the world is merely an illusion (or *Maya*) and the ultimate reality is *Brahma* (or God). The chief aim of a man in this world is to achieve '*Mukti*' from the perpetual circle of birth and rebirth. One should do good action (or *Karma*) so that he may improve himself in his next life. A man is punished or rewarded in exact proportion to the good and bad deeds done by him in this life. One is bound to reap the fruits of the trees that he has grown. The Aryans' belief in the transmigration of the soul was also strengthened during this period.

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-shell

SECTION 1. Aryans and their Original Home

(1) *The Aryans.* Highly civilized people, ancestors of a large population of the world including the Indians; The Persians, the Germans; The English etc.

(2) *Original Home of the Aryans.* Sapt-Sindhu theory, Arctic Region Theory; The Tibetan Theory, The Austro-Hungarian Theory, the Central Asian Theory; the most plausible theory and its reasons.

(3) *Advent of the Aryans in India.* The date of their coming in this country is uncertain; most probably 2,500 to 2,000 B.C.

(4) *Spread of the Aryans.* Sapt-Sindhu and the early vedic period, settling in the Gangetic Plain and the Later Vedic Period.

SECTION 2. The Rigvedic Civilization

(1) *Social Life.* Family Life, Position of Women, Food and dress, Games and Amusements; No caste system.

(2) *Economic Life.* Agriculture, Domestication of Animals; Trade; Other Occupations and Industries.

(3) *Religious Life.* Nature worship, Conception of one God; Chanting of Hymns; Sacrifice and Yajna.

(4) *Political Organization and Government.* Status of the king; Ministers and the King; The Sabha and the Samiti. Mode of warfare.

SECTION 3 The Vedic Literature

(A) *Early Vedic Literature* The Vedas, The Brahmanas; The Aranyakas and the Upanishads

(B) *Later Vedic Literature* The Sutras, Vedangas and Upavedas. Six Schools of Indian Philosophy, The Puranas, The Epics and Dharmas Sutras.

SECTION 4 Later Vedic Civilization

(1) *Political Life.* Expansion of the Aryans, Rise of the powerful kingdoms, Increase in the king's powers; Elaboration of the administrative machinery, A little change in the mode of warfare.

(2) *Social Life.* A little change in the position of women; Supremacy of the Kshatriyas, Rigidity of the castes system, Moral Degradation of the nobility, No change in the life of common people.

(3) *Economic Life.* Agriculture, Domestication of animals; Trade, Origin of cities

(4) *Religious Life.* Emergence of new gods, Complexities in the religion, Faith in charms and spells, Faith in the doctrines of Mukti; Maya, Karma and Transmigration of soul.

University & other Important Questions

1. Give a good account of the Aryan civilization as depicted in the Rigveda (C.B Hr Sec. 1963)
2. Give a brief account of the life and culture of the Indo-Aryans. (All India Hr. Sec 1966, 68, 69 : C B Hr. Sec. 1967)
3. Give a brief description of the social, economic, political and religious life of the Rig-Vedic Aryans (Pb. Hr. Sec. 1964)
4. Give a brief account of the social life and institution of the Aryans in Early Vedic times (Pb Hr. Sec 1967)
5. Describe the different branches of the Vedic Literature What is the importance of each ?
6. Describe the civilization and culture of the Later Vedic Periods.

7. Write in about ten lines what you know about the following :—
 (1) The Sabha and the Samiti. (2) The Vedas. (3) Max Muller's Theory about the Original Home of the Aryans. (4) The importance of the Epics. (5) Religion of the Rigvedic Aryans. (6) Religion of the Aryans in Later Vedic Period. (7) Social life during the Rigvedic Age. (8) Upanishads.
8. Answer the following in 'Yes' or 'No'. (1) Purdah system was prevalent in the Rigvedic Period. (2) Rigveda is the oldest book of the Aryans. (3) The Aryans worshipped idols (4) The Sudras were hated in the Rigvedic society. (5) The life of the Aryans was divided into five Ashramas.
9. Fill in the blanks :—
 (1) According to the Aryans lived in Arctic Region.
 (2) was the writer of Purva Mimamsa.
 (3) There are..... mantras in Rigveda
 (4) were held in great respect in the Rigvedic Society.
 (5) The Aryans settled first of all in India.
10. Choose the correct answer :
 (1) Aryan civilization was urban/rural.
 (2) Agriculture/Trade/Domestication of animals was the chief occupation of the Aryans.
 (3) The battle of Mahabharata was fought in Rajasthan/Madhya Pradesh/Kurukshetra.
 (4) Purohit/Senani/Gramini was more influential in the Aryan Society
 (5) There are 1018/1028/1038 mantras in the Rigveda.
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Ancient Civilization of China

SECTION 1. MAIN FEATURES OF THE CHINESE CIVILIZATION

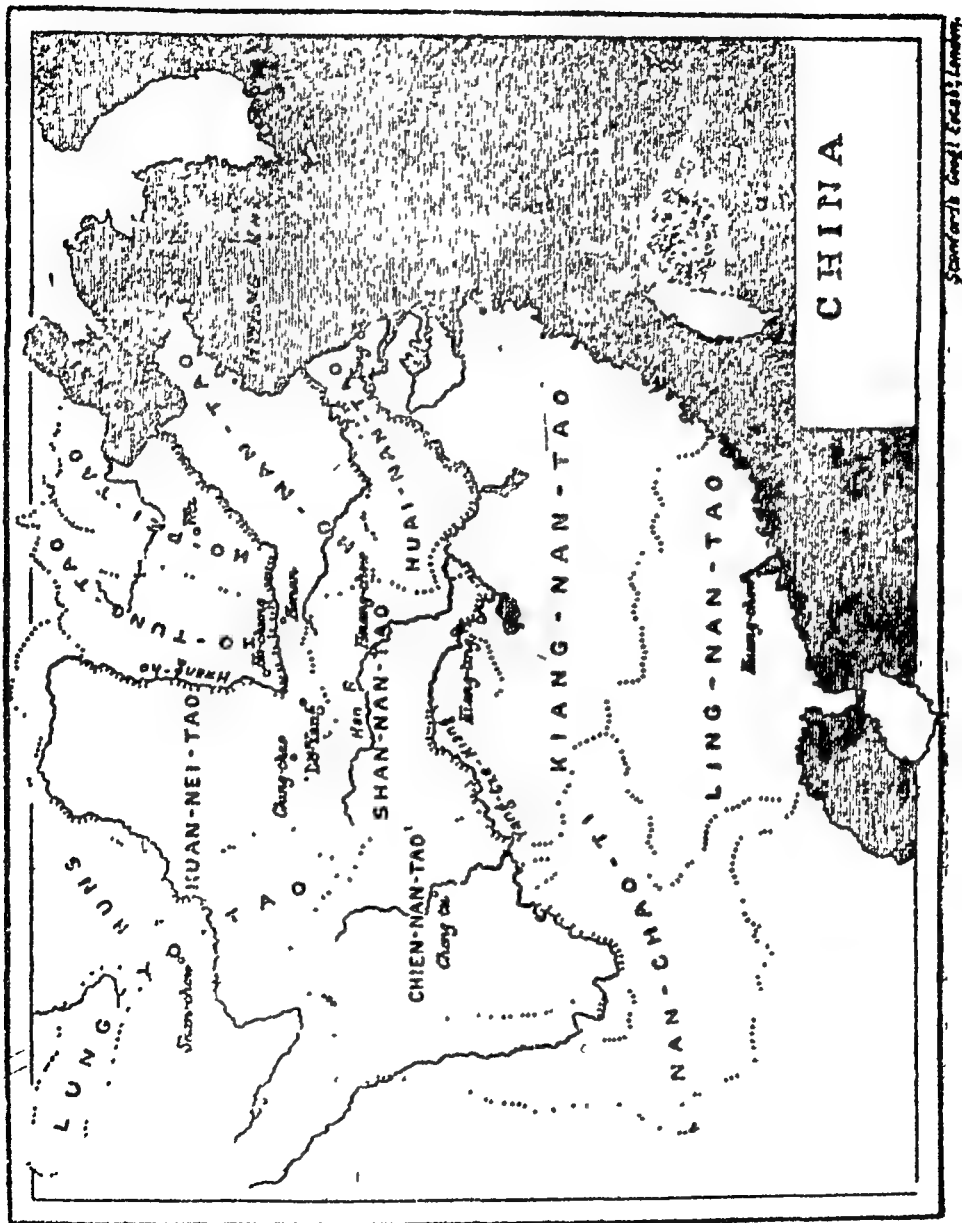
Like Egypt, Mesopotamia and India a highly developed civilization flourished in China in ancient times. The two rivers of China, Hwang-Ho and Yang-tse-Kiang played an important role in the development of this civilization.

1. **Geography of China.** China is a very big country in the world with a population of over 70 crores and an area of 1,500,000 square miles. The ancient China remained cut off from the rest of the world due to various causes and consequently its people developed their culture quite independent of other contemporary civilizations of the world. In the east lay the Pacific Ocean; in the west there are high mountain ranges; in the south lay the high Himalayas and in the north there are barren deserts. As the northern boundary is not so well-protected, a Chinese Emperor built a great wall (in about 200 B.C.) to keep out the Mongol invaders. Hence the Chinese developed a culture of their own uninfluenced by the outside world. Though the Chinese had established commercial ties with West Asia and Europe yet they were not so much influenced by them.

China enjoyed the finest natural water-ways in the world. The easy interchange of products between the north and the south on the one hand, and between the coastal provinces and the interior parts on the other, made China practically a self-sufficient country and she had little need of foreign goods.

The two rivers of China namely the Hwang-Ho and Yang-tse-Kiang played an important role in the development of ancient civilization of China. The deep, fertile soil and temperate climate made those valleys an ideal place for living a settled and a prosperous life.

Thus the geographical conditions of China, on the one hand favoured the growth of a great civilized nation and on the other hand led to the isolation of that nation from other civilized people of the world



2. **The Chinese People.** The Chinese belong to the Mongolian race. Many thousands years ago the Chinese tribes who called themselves "The Black Haired People" settled on the banks of Hwang-Ho or Yellow River, and gradually they spread into the valley of Yang-tse-Kiang also. They annexed all the territories

occupied by the native people who were finally absorbed by them. They became great farmers. Like the Egyptians they had to struggle against heavy floods and learn how to control the fury of rivers. They made wonderful discoveries and at length they carved out in the middle of China a kingdom called the 'Middle Flowery Kingdom'.

3. Brief History of China. The early history of China is mainly legendary. The Chinese mythology records names of rulers as far back as 3,000 B.C. but it is about 2,150 B.C. that we begin to have somewhat clear picture of the historical facts. By 2,150 B.C. the first dynastic rule was founded by Yu who established Hsia Dynasty. After that many dynasties ruled over China one after another and slowly and slowly China marched towards a developed culture and civilization.

(1) *The Hsia Dynasty (2,150 to 1,750 B.C.)* The credit, for forming the Hsia Dynasty goes to the great and wise King Yu. He was an engineer-king who saved his people from terrible floods. There is an old Chinese saying. "*But for Yu we should all have been fishes.*" He was a just king who saw that justice was done to everyone. The rule of this dynasty lasted for about 400 years (2150 to 1750 B.C.) During this rule there was peace and order in China and foundation of centralised government was laid. Art of writing was developed during this period.

(2) *The Shang Dynasty (1750 to 1122 B.C.)* China made wonderful progress during the reign of this dynasty. The rulers of this dynasty promoted agriculture and industry and thus enriched the economic life of the Chinese. The horse was domesticated for agriculture, transportation and war. The last king of this dynasty Chou-Tsin was very ease-loving so there was a revolt against him in 1122 B.C. in which he was dethroned by the Chou Dynasty.

(3) *The Chou Dynasty (1122 to 250 B.C.)* In 1122 B.C. Wu-Wong seized power and founded the Chou Dynasty in China. This period is known as the Classic Age in the History of China. He extended the boundaries of his empire and also gave a good administration to his subjects. Wu-Wong and his successors encouraged agriculture, trade and industries. The wealth of the nation increased and the people began to lead a happy and prosperous life. The rulers of this dynasty promoted learning and philosophy. They set up free schools for the education of both the rich and the poor. Education and learning were prized more than wealth. Even the humblest person, if he was intelligent, could become a wise scholar and occupy the greatest office of the land. The Chou rule produced great moral philosophers like Lao-Tse, Confucius and Mencius. However the power of this dynasty began to decline in the 6th century B.C. when the feudal lords became more and more powerful. The central government became weak and there was no law and order in the country. Consequently, the kingdom broke up into many small states which began to fight

with one another and also against the King. This period came to be known as the "Age of Confusion" when China was torn by war-fare for hundreds of years. At last in 250 B.C. the Chin Dynasty put an end to the rule of the Chou Dynasty.

(4) *The Chin Dynasty* (250 to 206 B.C.). The Chin rulers put an end to the 'Age of Confusion' and established a strong and unified empire in China. Shi-Hwang-Ti was the most famous King of this dynasty. He was a great military commander and a statesman. He conquered various regions of China and brought them under his control. He established peace and order and setup a strong centralized government in the country. He did away with the feudal system. He divided China into 36 provinces each with three governors. He gave a clean and efficient administration to China. He ruled by explicit laws and himself saw to it that his laws were carried out. He built many roads, bridges and canals. In order to save his country from the invasions of the Tartars he built "The Great Wall of China". It is still regarded as one of the 'Seven Wonders of World'. He beautified his capital with beautiful palaces and statues.

Shi-Hwang-Ti, sometimes, took recourse to cruelty. He could not tolerate those who criticized or opposed him. Some critics took recourse to old literature and began to criticize him. He ordered that all such scholars and all existing books, except those dealing with agriculture, medicine and fortune-telling should be burnt. In this connection **Will Durant** remarks, "*He was a robust and obstinate soul, recognising no god but himself, and pledged, like some Nietzschean Bismark, to unify his country by blood and iron*".

In spite of his cruelty and ruthlessness his services to his country cannot be ignored. **V.A. Renouf** has rightly remarked, "*But his misdeeds cannot rob him of the merit of having been the true founder of united China*".¹

(5) *The Han Dynasty*. (206 B.C. to 221 A.D.) After the death of Shi-Hwang-Ti in 210 B.C., there was a civil war in China. It led to the establishment of the rule of the Han Dynasty in about 206 B.C. Under the rule of this dynasty China witnessed peace and prosperity and a wonderful progress in the political, economic and cultural spheres was made.

Wu-Ti (140-87 B.C.) was the greatest ruler of this dynasty. He was a great warrior. He kept out the Tartars and extended his empire upto the Caspian Sea. He was a capable and benevolent ruler. He set-up an efficient and strong centralized government. He organised the civil service and appointments and promotions were made on the basis of the competitive examinations, ability and accomplishments. It is well said that, "*Learning rather than birth became the basis of official and social standing*". In order to end the Chinese isolation and to encourage trade, he established commercial relations with India, Persia, Syria and the Mediterranean countries. Buddhism found its way into China from India during this period. Wu Ti took various steps to introduce socialism in

China He broke up private monopolies and controlled trade and commerce Taxation was made uniform. Various works of public utility were undertaken by him

He patronized and encouraged *art and literature*. Old books burnt during the reign of Shi-Hwang-Ti were copied down and many new books were also written Under his patronage, sculpture and painting also received encouragement. The teachings of Confucius again became popular which resulted in the moral uplift of the Chinese people. The rule of this dynasty is known as "*The Golden Age*" in the History of China

(6) *The Dark Age* (221 to 618 A.D.) The last few rulers of the Han Dynasty were very weak and inefficient The Tartars invaded China in about 221 A.D. The weak rulers could not resist their invasions, so the Tartars held their sway over China from 221 to 618 A.D. This was a period of chaos and confusion and is known as 'the Dark Age' It was marked by political, economic and cultural degradation

(7) *The Tang Dynasty* (618 to 908 A.D.) At last a Chinese ruler, named *Li Yuen* pushed back the Tartars, restored peace and order and founded the rule of the Tang Dynasty in China in 618 A.D. *Tai Tsung* was the greatest ruler of this dynasty. He regained the lost territories and further extended his empire. Like *Ashoka* he also gave up arms and became the lover of peace in the later period of his life During his rule China established commercial and friendly relations with many countries China also made remarkable progress in art and literature The rule of this dynasty was, however, over-thrown by the Tartars again in 908 A.D.

(8) *The Shung Dynasty* (960 to 1279 A.D.) The Tartars dominated China from 908 to 960 A.D. They were, however, expelled from China by the rulers of the Shung Dynasty who ruled China upto 1279 A.D. The last king of this dynasty was murdered in about 1279 A.D. It brought chaos and disorder in the country and she passed under the rule of the Mongols.

4 Administration and Civil Service :—

(1) *Benevolent Monarchy* There was prevalent a benevolent monarchy in China The Emperor held the reins of the government in his hands. He was considered as a father of his subjects and enjoyed absolute authority. He was the law-giver, the chief judge and the high-priest of the nation He was supreme in all matters and all authority flowed from him But he ruled in the best interests of his subjects and always looked after their welfare In this connection, **Dr J.E. Swain** remarks, '*The Emperor was expected to be an example to his people, prospering and suffering with them. People and emperor alike feasted in the years of plenty : in year of famine starved together on equal terms.*'

The whole country was divided into many provinces. The king used to control these provinces with the help of governors and other officials appointed by him and responsible to him alone.

(2) *Competitive Examinations.* The efficiency of the administration depended on the ability of the officials, so great attention was paid to the recruitment of these officials. The civil servants were known as '*Mandarins*'. The appointment of these civil servants was made through competitive examinations. The candidates were examined in horsemanship, archery, writing, music, history, poetry, accounts and philosophy. This system of recruitment through competitive examinations resulted in the appointment of efficient, able and honest officials who ruled in the best interests of the people.

(3) *Liberties of the People.* Though the Chinese government was highly centralized, yet it was not despotic, in the real sense of the word. The officials respected the public opinion and the administration of local affairs was left to the people. The headsmen of the villages were elected by the people. He guided all the affairs of the village, settled disputes and dealt with the imperial officials.

(4) *Love of Peace.* The Chinese were a peace-loving people. They hated the word soldier. The '*Mandarins*' commanded more respect than the soldiers. Though they produced famous warriors and administrators like Shi-Hwang-Ti and yet their contribution to army and its organisation is not noteworthy. Instead of warfare they had great respect for learning the arts of peace.

5 Economic Life :—

(1) *Agriculture.* Agriculture was the main occupation of the Chinese. They cultivated wheat, rice, millet, soyabeans and tea. Irrigation was developed in China very early. It was supervised and financed by the government. Canals were dug for irrigation purposes. In order to increase the production, the Chinese used manures and followed the system of rotation of crops. Tea was their chief cash-crop.

(2) *Crafts and Industries.* As the centuries passed, many crafts and industries grew up in China. Silk and embroidery-work were the major contributions of the Chinese in textiles. Metal workers made ornaments of gold and silver and kitchen utensils of iron and bronze. The porcelain ware or pottery known as China-ware found its way in the markets of the world and was appreciated every where. Glass, paper, ink, printing press, gun powder and compass etc. were also manufactured in China. The articles made by the craftsmen of China reveal the high standard of craftsmanship. The workers in each craft formed their own organizations, called guilds, which regulated the quality of their work.

(3) *Trade and Commerce.* The rulers of Chou and Han dynasties encouraged trade and commerce. The Chinese established

commercial relations with India, Persia, Syria and Rome. Silk, salt and iron were the earliest commodities in Chinese trade. Later on they started the export of articles of copper, bronze, tea, jade (precious stones) and lacquer (or varnish).

(4) *Coined Money*. As the trade increased the need of some sort of currency was felt. In 221 B.C. the barter system was abolished and a round coin with a square hole in the middle was declared as the official currency. The practice of money-lending and banking became common in China in the fifth century B.C.

(5) *State Socialism*. The Chinese were the pioneers of state socialism. The government held monopoly of salt, iron and coinage. It bought goods when the prices were low and later on sold them at higher prices. Transport was under the complete control of government. A uniform system of taxation was introduced by the government. Income tax was realized at the rate of 5%. Wang Mang distributed land equally among the farmers, fixed the prices of various articles and gave loans free of interest to the needy persons. In this way he tried to remove inequality. Wang-An-Shi, a minister of the Shung Dynasty favoured the management of agriculture, trade and industry by the government to bring about socialism.

6 **Social Life**. The unit of the Chinese society was the family. The head of the family exercised great authority over the other members of the family who obeyed and respected him. The Chinese society consisted of four classes, agriculturists, craftsmen, traders and the literary class comprising the '*Mandarins*' and scholars. The scholars enjoyed great respect in the society. Likewise, the '*Mandarins*' were also held in great respect. They were honoured and had great power and prestige because they were expert in Chinese writing which was very complex. The condition of the peasants, though they formed a major part of the society was not so good. The system of slavery was also prevalent in China. Their lot was, very miserable and sometimes they were buried along with their masters to serve them in heaven too.

Women did not occupy high status in society. They observed purdah and were under the complete control of men. Confucius was the strong advocate of the equality of women with men. His teachings went a long way in improving the lot of women in China.

7 **Discoveries and Inventions**. The Chinese were very intelligent and hard-working. They were endowed with mechanical and inventive skill. They made many wonderful and useful discoveries and inventions. Some of their remarkable discoveries and inventions were the following :—

(1) *Paper*. In the beginning the Chinese made paper from bamboo and silk. But the paper made out of bamboo was very thick and that made from silk was very costly. About 105 A.D. they, however, made a better kind of paper from the bark of trees, hemp (plants) and rags of cloth.

(2) *Ink and Printing.* Most probably the Chinese were the first to invent ink and printing. They made black ink from lamp-black and red ink from mercury-oxide. The invention of ink led to the invention of printing. In the eighth century the Chinese replaced hand-printing with block-printing. The first such book was printed in 868 A.D.

(3) *Silk and Tea* The most wonderful discovery of the Chinese is silk. They taught the people to rear the silk-worms, which fed on the mulberry leaves, and to weave silk from the fine threads in which the worms wrap themselves. They learned to weave silk and made many beautiful designs on it. The Chinese silk-cloth was liked and appreciated every where.

The Chinese cultivated tea and dried it for later use. In the beginning it was used as a medicine but later on it became their favourite beverage.

(4) *Porcelain (or Glazed Pottery)* The Chinese produced porcelain and made many articles from it such as plates, cups, bowls, bottles, beakers, vases, jars, boxes, candle-sticks etc. The Chinese glazed pottery was really excellent. It commanded a large sale and has immortalised the name of China.

(5) *Water-mill and Paper-currency* The Chinese invented the water-mill to grind corn. The invention of printing led to the invention of paper-currency which was introduced by the Chinese first of all.

(6) *Gun-Powder.* They invented gun-powder during the rule of the Sung Dynasty. In the beginning they used it in crackers and fire-works alone but later on they began to use it in making explosives and hand-grenades. The Arab traders learnt the art of making gun-powder from the Chinese and taught the same to the Europeans in 14th century A.D.

(7) *Mariner's Compass.* The Chinese first of all invented the compass and used it for navigational purposes.

(8) *Some other Inventions.* They also manufactured glass in 200 B.C. The Chinese were the first to use coal and gas for heating purposes.

In short, in the words of Prof. Heamshaw we can say "If we remember what the compass, gun-powder and the printing press meant to Christendom in the 15th century A.D., we shall hardly regard it as fanciful to say that the Renaissance owed as much to China as to Greece".

8 **Art.** The Chinese have a great artistic and aesthetic sense. They produced various works of art especially in the fields of sculpture and paintings.

(1) *Sculpture.* The art of sculpture could not flourish much in China because the sculptors there did not enjoy freedom and

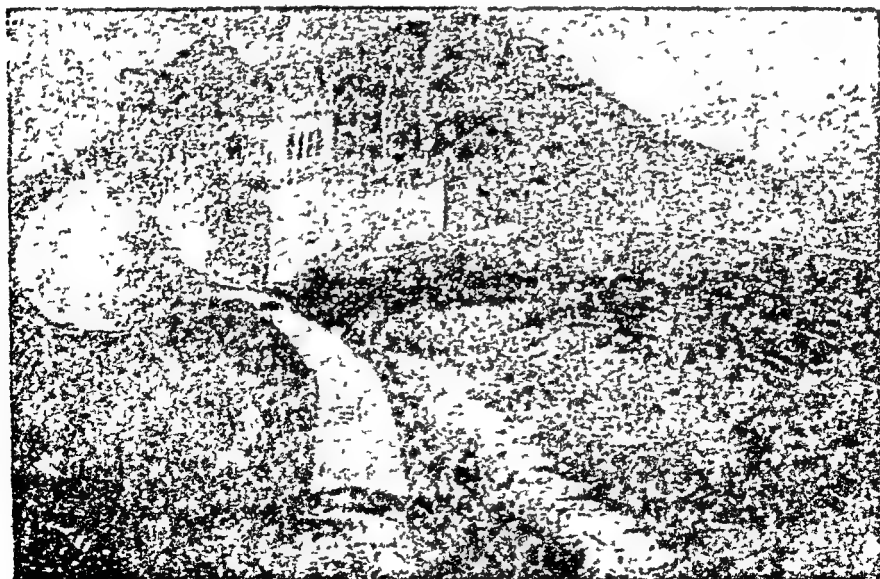
the Chinese modesty also stood in their way. They could not express themselves freely and produced statues of saints and sages.

But their bronze works are really artistic and matchless. In the Shang Period they produced several bronze works and decorated them with figures of animals and monsters. They also made various other bronze articles such as incense burners, wine-vessels, mirrors, weapons, bells, vases and many other things.

The statues of ladies, dancing girls, warriors and wrestlers display the mastery of form and movement. The statues of Buddha, made in stone, clay and bronze were also very superb. These works reveal the artistic skill of the Chinese sculptors

(2) *Painting.* The art of painting was developed to a high degree in China. They depicted scenes of nature and human life. They used camel hair-brush and water colours in their paintings. Portraiture was also very popular. During the Shung Period painting became a passion with the people. *Wang Wei* (699—759) was a great landscape painter and teacher of this art. He was a poet as well as a painter and many of his poems were inscribed upon pictures. To him, "*Every poem is a picture, and every picture a poem.*" *Liang K'uei* was a famous portrait painter. About him *Dr. J.E Swain* remarks, "*All his paintings are highly imaginative, and were intended to provoke thought and contemplation.*"

9. **Engineering and Architecture.** The Chinese achieved great success in engineering and architecture. "*The Great Wall of China,*" writes *J.E Swain*, "*is one of the most impressive of Chinese*



The Great Wall of China.

architectural accomplishments. *It was built for a purely utilitarian purpose; but its grandeur, simplicity and homogeneous beauty command attention.* It was built by the famous Chinese emperor Shi-Hwang-ti in the 3rd century B.C. to keep out the Tartars. It is 1800 miles (2900 K.M.) long, 22 feet high and 20 feet wide. It runs over plains, deserts and mountains. It starts from the eastern sea, runs across the northern and western frontiers of China and reaches Tibet. At intervals of 100 yards, it has towers forty feet high. In all there are 10,000 towers. It took ten years to build it. Hundreds of thousands of workers and prisoners of war were employed to complete it. It is one of the seven wonders of the world. According to John Conrad, *"It required such hard labour to build it, that it has been said that every stone in it cost a life."*

The Chinese constructed beautiful palaces and temples as well. They made an extensive use of wood in their buildings.



The Pagoda-Temple

Another important feature of Chinese architecture was a rectangular courtyard within a building. The buildings were generally constructed on raised platforms and had curved tilted tops. Shi-Hwang-ti built a beautiful palace. Later on the Chinese started to construct temples on the Stupa style of India. They are called Pagoda Temples. The inside of these temples was decorated with paintings and the outer portion was ornamented with beautiful sculptures.

10. Writing, Literature, and Science—

(1) *Writing.* The Chinese certainly began to write in very ancient times. It was a kind of picture-

writing. It was very complicated and was made up of combination of pictures and phonetics or sound-symbols. Dr J.E. Swain writes, *"The Chinese language has no alphabet, no syntax, no parts of speech and no spelling."* At first they made simple pictures by tying knots in a rope or a string. Then they learned to cut their pictures on long strips of bamboo. They wrote from top to bottom. There are about 40,000 picture-letters but 600 are considered to be fundamental. Each word and idea has a separate sign. A straight line with a curve over it, indicates 'morning'. A sign of a hand with a stick indicates the word 'father'.

The sign of a woman with a broom in the hand means the word 'mother'. The word 'quarrelling' is represented by a woman with two mouths. A man and a woman standing together means 'talkative'. It took the Chinese years to master all such symbols of writing. Thus all those persons who mastered the language were highly honoured in China both by the state and the society. It is generally believed that although the Chinese were very intelligent people yet they could not make remarkable progress in the social and economic spheres owing to their complicated language. They used bamboo pen and a coloured ink for writing.

(2) *Literature* Confucius was the outstanding writer in philosophy and literature. The 'Book of Odes' (*Shi Ching*) is his earliest work and it deals with religion, war and love. The 'Record of Rites' (*Lichi*) the 'Book of Changes' (*I Ching*) and 'Book of History' (*Shu Ching*) are the most original and famous books of Confucius.

The greatest of the Chinese literature is in the form of *poetry* because the Chinese are poetical by nature. Many great poets lived during the reign of the Han Dynasty and during the Tang period, Chinese poetry reached its height. *Li Tai Po* (705-762) was the greatest poet of China and he wrote 30 volumes of verse. About his poetical skill **Dr J E Swain** remarks "In his 'Wandering Guest', he makes the dead heroes live again and ruined palaces regain their splendour." *Tu Fu* (712-770) another famous poet of China, has been called the 'Keats of China'. He wrote on sadder themes. According to **Prof S R Sharma**, "The Chinese literature reflects an attitude of sweet reasonableness, optimism, simplicity and peace."

Szuma Chien was the most famous historian of China. He wrote 'Historical Memoirs' or (*Shi Chi*). A Chinese dictionary (named *Shuo Wan*) containing 10,000 characters, was written during the reign of the Han Dynasty.

(3) *Science*. The Chinese had made great progress in science also. They were conversant with the theory of the geometry. The Chinese Mathematicians had an idea of negative quantity. They could calculate the value of π to six places of decimal. Research work was carried on in chemistry, mineralogy, botany, zoology, pharmacology etc during the Han period.

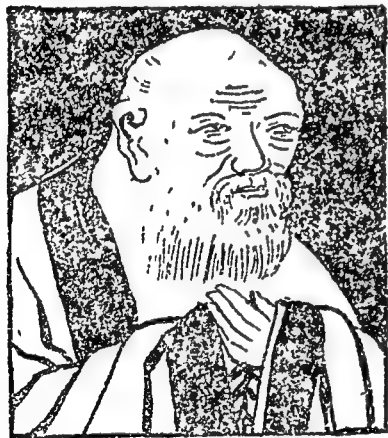
Priests practised *astrology*. They could foretell the time of the eclipses. They had invented a lunar calendar. A crude seismograph (Instrument for registering earthquakes) had also been invented.

The Chinese had made considerable progress in the *science of medicine*. The Canon (or Book of Medicine) was prepared during the Chou Period. It describes the functions of the various organs of the body. It contained the names of various diseases and prescribed treatment for them. In this connection **Dr. J.E. Swain** writes, "Various organs were named and the work of each was des-

cribed; the heart was the prince, the liver the general, the gall bladder the central office, the lungs the minister, and the kidneys skilled workers." Chang-Chung-Ching (2nd century A.D.) was the famous Chinese doctor who could cure the typhoid fever. He was known as the "Sage of Medicine" Hua To was the famous surgeon of ancient China. He could perform very delicate operations. Though the Chinese had made great advancement in science yet they had faith in many superstitions, magic and charms.

11. Religion The Chinese witnessed many ups and downs in the religious field. In the beginning they believed in magic and charms. Slowly and slowly they began to worship their ancestors. Then they began to worship the various objects of nature. *Shang Ti* (or Heaven) was their most important deity who was worshipped every where. The king of China was regarded as his son. In the sixth century B.C. two great philosophers Lao-Tse and Confucius played an important part in the development of Chinese religion and philosophy. In the first century B.C. Buddhism also took its roots in China.

(1) *Taoism*. Lao Tse was a great philosopher of the 6th century B.C. He was born in Central China in 604 B.C. He worked as a



Lao-Tse

Keeper of Records under the rulers of the Chou Dynasty. Literarily Lao Tse means 'the wise old person or the old philosopher.' His philosophical ideals are contained in his book '*Tao-Te-Ching*'. His religious 'philosophy' is termed as Taoism or the religion of the right path. The following are the main doctrines of his religious faith—

(i) Inactivity is the best jewel of character. He said—

"Do nothing, and people will become good of their own accord"

(ii) Man should lead a simple and virtuous life. Humility is the first and foremost virtue of a perfect man. He said, "*When merit hath been achieved take it not unto thyself. If thou does not take unto thyself, behold it can never be taken from thee*".

(iii) One should always live in harmony with nature and be contented. "*Abandon wisdom and discard knowledge and the people will be benefitted hundred fold*". He also remarked, "*The secret of wisdom and that of quiet content, which is the only lasting happiness that man can find, is a stoic obedience to nature, an abandonment of all artifice and intellect, a trustful acceptance of nature's imperatives in instinct and feeling and a modest imitation of nature's silent ways.*"

(iv) One should be good to all, even to bad persons. He said, "To those who are good, I am good. to those who are not good, I am also good, thus all get to be good."

(v) Next to humility he attached great importance to *frugality*. He used to say, "*The wise man doth not accumulate. The more he spends for others, the more doth he possess of his own, the more he giveth to others, the more hath he for himself*"

(vi) Happiness would be found by living simply and nobly. Unlimited desires lead to selfishness and unhappiness.

People were greatly influenced by his teachings. Some even worshipped him like a god. But the preachings of Buddhism in China in the first century A.D. and the penetration of superstitions, magic and strange rituals led to the decline of Taoism.

(2) *Confucius*. He was another great philosopher of China whose teachings affected the Chinese even more than Taoism or the teachings of Lao-Tse (For details see the next Section.)

(3) *Buddhism*. During the reign of Kanishka in India and Han dynasty in China Buddhism found its way in China. It soon became a popular religion there. It exercised a great influence on the civilization and culture of China.

12 Contribution of the Chinese Civilization to the World

The Chinese had made a valuable contribution to the World civilization. Especially Korea, Japan and Indo-China are greatly indebted to her. According to V. A. Renouf, "*The civilization of China was carried into Korea, Japan, and the states of Indo-China. What the Far East possesses in arts, literature and philosophy, is almost wholly, directly or indirectly, the product of Chinese genius*" Dr J. E. Swain observed that, "*the religious leaders and philosophers of China have hardly been surpassed in any age or by any civilization*". Confucius is outstanding among the philosophers of the world. His philosophy has a universal appeal and his teachings can be followed by all the people at all times. Their invention of paper helped in the expansion of knowledge in the world. They were the first to invent ink and printing. They taught the people of the world to make silk and porcelain. They introduced banking and paper currency first of all. They invented the gun powder, mariner's compass, jade, and lacquer work. They invented a Seismograph. The Great Wall of China is considered as one of the seven Wonders of the World. The Pagoda Temples reveal the architectural skill of the Chinese architects. State Socialism was introduced by the Chinese first of all in the World. They taught the World to make appointment to the civil service through competitive examinations. In short, China has left a rich legacy to the World. Their contribution in the development of World civilization is note-worthy and remarkable.

SECTION 2—CONFUCIUS

Confucius is still regarded as one of the greatest religious reformers and philosophers of China. His teachings, popularly

Known as Confuciusism, became more popular even than those of Lao-Tse.

Early Life. Confucius was born in 551 B.C. in a poor but noble family in the little state of Lu, now known as Shantung.



Confucius

When he was only a boy, his father died, consequently, he was left in great poverty. He had to do all sorts of humble tasks, but he was determined to become a great scholar and a teacher. He opened a school named, 'Academy' and taught his pupils the ancient history and poetry of China, along with the ceremonies and rules for polite conduct. The Duke of Lu appointed him as the Minister of Justice. While holding this post he introduced many reforms and as a result of his wise policy the state became prosperous. At last the Duke of Lu began to disobey his teachings and drove him into exile. Confucius wandered hither and thither but he continued his preachings. The people were greatly influenced by his simple teachings. He compiled his moral and religious

philosophy in five books known as 'Record of Rites', 'Book of Change', 'Book of Odes', 'Spring and Autumn Annals' and 'Book of History'. They are regarded as the great national wealth in China. At last he died in 479 B.C. at the ripe age of 72.

His Teachings Confucius was a practical philosopher. He never claimed that he had any thing divine about him. His teachings were based on good manners. He did not deal with mystical questions concerning God, the life after death and religious rituals, spirits and the unknown world. He was more concerned with the man on this earth than with God in Heaven or man after death. He rightly remarked, "*So long as thou dost not know life, how canst thou know death? So long as thou art not able to serve men, how canst thou serve the spirits?*" Again he said "*I do not expect to find a saint today, if I find a gentleman, I shall feel satisfied*". He laid great stress on good manners and morality. He preached, "*Reply kindness with kindness, but reply evil with justice*". At another place he said, "*What you do not want to be done unto you, do not do unto others.*" His teachings were practical. He laid down in detail the duties of a man. He divided duties under five heads: those of rulers and subjects, husbands and wives, fathers and children, elder and younger brothers, and lastly those

of friends. Man should be firm on justice, honesty, sincerity, duty and morality. He was a strict disciplinarian and emphasized the moral way of life. In short Confucius was neither a philosopher nor a religious leader but a practical reformer who laid great stress on discipline, rules and procedure.

His political ideas were also very revolutionary. He was a strong advocate of the benevolent government. He was of the view that the administration should be based on the will of the people and not on power and tyranny. Despotism cannot last long. The sovereignty of the state lies with the people. So the government must try to win the confidence of the people. The ruler must be model for his subjects. He must appoint efficient and honest persons to administer the affairs of the government and the governed must pay respect to discipline, rules, manners and procedures. He wrote, *"There is good government when those, who are near, are made happy and those, who are far off, are attracted"*. He compared the tyrannical king with a fierce tiger. He wished to teach the rulers to govern rightly and to restore to China the happiness of the Golden Age.

Confucius's greatness lies in the fact that like a true teacher, writer and reformer he proved that his teachings were universal and practicable. They were good and useful for all peoples of all times. V A Renouf rightly observes, *"No other reformer has held such an absolute sway over a great part of humanity for such a long period"*.

Confucius lived some 2400 years ago yet, to this day, perhaps no other influence is so powerful in China as that of his. In this connection it has been said—*"It is greatly due to the teachings of Confucius that there are no people in the world more patient, polite and self controlled than the Chinese"*. China may change her form of government and her rulers, but not the sense of duty and good manners of her people."

Summary of the Chapter in a Nut shell

Ancient Civilization of China. It flourished in the Valley of Hwang-Ho and Yang-tse-kiang rivers about 2,500 B C.

(1) **Geography of China.** Cut off from the rest of the world; Self sufficient country; Fertile land, Commercial relations, China's civilization developed quite independently.

(2) **The Chinese People.** Mongolian race, Black haired people conquered China and set up the Middle Flowery Kingdom.

(3) **History of China.** Rule of seven Dynasties from 2,150 B C to 1,270 B C—The Hsia Dynasty, The Shang Dynasty, The Chou Dynasty, The Chin Dynasty, The Han Dynasty, The Tang Dynasty and the Sung Dynasty, Great progress during the rule of Hsia, Chou, Chin and Han dynasties.

(4) **Administration and Civil Service.** Benevolent monarchy. Competitive Examinations; Liberties of the people, Love of peace.

(5) **Economic Life.** Agriculture ; Crafts and Industries—Invention of glass, paper, ink, Printing Press, Gun-powder etc ; Commercial relations with other countries , Coined money ; State Socialism.

(6) **Social Life.** Family as a unit of society ; Four classes—agriculturists, craftsmen, traders and '*Mandarins*' or Scholars ; Slavery ; Low position of women.

(7) **Discoveries and Inventions.** Paper ; Ink and Printing ; Silk and tea : Porcelain ; Water-mill ; Paper-currency ; Mariner's Compass.

(8) **Arts.** Sculpture—Bronze work matchless , Paintings of scenes of human life and nature , Wang Wei and Liang K'uei were the famous painters

(9) **Engineering and Architecture.** The Great Wall of China by Shi-Hwang-ti , Palaces and Pagoda-Temples,

(10) **Writing, Literature, Science**

(a) *Writing* Very complicated picture-writing ; Use of ink ; Bamboo pen and paper.

(b) *Literature.* Philosophical literature of Confucius ; Poems of *Li Tai Po* and *Tu Fu* ; Historical Memoirs of Szuma Chien.

(c) *Science.* Progress in Mathematics ; Research in Chemistry ; Botany ' Zoology etc . Astronomy—Lunar calender ; Seismograph ; Advancement in Medicine—Knowledge of human body ; Diseases and treatment and surgery.

(11) **Religion** (1) Religious belief such as ancestor and nature worship and spirits ; (2) Philosophy of Lao Tse and Confucius ; (3) Entry of Buddhism in China.

(12) **Contribution to World Civilization.** Rich Legacy ; Contribution to the civilization of Korea, Japan and Indo China ; Various inventions of China ; The Great Wall of China ; Palaces and Pagoda-temples ; Competitive Examination and State Socialism.

2. **Confucius.** (1) *Early Life* Birth in a noble family in 551 B.C. He became a great scholar and philosopher , Imparting education in his Academy , Working on the post of a Magistrate ; Writing great books.

(2) *His Teachings.* Emphasis on morality and leading good life ; Stress on social service ; Revolutionary ideas ; King should be benevolent ; Becoming more popular with the enemy of Shi-Hwang-ti , His teachings were universal

University and Other Important Questions

1. Give a brief account of the ancient civilization of China with special reference to art, religion and government. (C.U. 1958 ; U U. 1961, 64, 65)
2. What factors led to the isolation of China (C.B.S E 1971)
3. What do you know about the social, political, religious and economic life of the Ancient Chinese
4. What different discoveries and inventions had the Chinese made in ancient times ?

nd his Psalms were very famous. In the Bible he has 'a man after God's own heart'. He planned a beautiful God Jehovah. He also encouraged trade.

was succeeded by his son Solomon (973-933 B.C.). Solomon the Wise, in the history of the world. He expanded the empire, encouraged trade and brought prosperity to it. He was famous for his wisdom, wealth and glory. He lived a long life and spent his wealth on pleasures and luxuries. The Hebrews had to impose heavy taxes on his subjects and he lost their good-will.

Break-up of the Kingdom. The burden of expensive habits fell on the people. It resulted in the division of the ten northern tribes in the reign of Solomon's successor (Rehoboam) in 930 B.C. The ten tribes set-up a Kingdom of Israel in the north with Samaria as its capital. These tribes were called Samaritans. The two southern tribes formed the Kingdom of Judah, whose capital was Jerusalem.

The division of the Hebrews into two kingdoms made their future difficult. Being tempted by their wealth the Assyrians conquered the Kingdom of Israel in 722 B.C. The Assyrians, however, failed to conquer Judah. This little weak kingdom of Judah survived till 586 B.C. when the Chaldean king Nebuchadnezzar, Conqueror of Babylon, destroyed Jerusalem and carried the people away as captives to Babel.

The Hebrews were freed from the Babylonian captivity in 539 B.C. when the Persian ruler Cyrus overthrew the Chaldeans and Assyrians.

The Kingdom of the Hebrews proved short-lived. The conquests of the Greeks under Alexander the Great brought the Hebrews under Hellenism. In 70 A.D., the Roman emperor Titus destroyed Jerusalem, occupied the Temple and put an end to the Jewish State. Many of the Jews were scattered throughout the Roman Empire. Later on they were persecuted by the Arabs and the Turks. The Jews were driven to the East and they led a wandering life.

The Hebrews, after the lapse of so many centuries, are now a new and independent state. They got a chance to lead a new life.

The Jews of Palestine were the new Israel. The Jews of the Diaspora were the new Israel. The Jews of the Diaspora were the new Israel. The Jews of the Diaspora were the new Israel.

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The Hebrews or the Jews

1. **Early History.** The Hebrews were a nomadic people, who lived in the lower parts of the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. They belonged to the Semitic race. They were known as the Jews or the Israelites. As their population increased, some of them marched westward. About 2,000 B.C. one of the Hebrew Patriarchs, Abraham, led his tribe to Palestine. However, about 1500 B.C. there broke out a severe draught in Palestine. As luck would have it, one of the Hebrews held an important office in the government of Egypt. He pitied their lot and invited them to come to Egypt and settle there. Some of them migrated to the northern part of Egypt. But gradually the Pharaohs of Egypt reduced them to a state of slavery and they had to undergo many hardships. Thutmose III and Queen Hatshepsut persecuted the Hebrews in large numbers. There is a story in the Old Testament that their prophet Moses could not tolerate the cruel treatment of the Pharaohs and led his people out of his bondage and helped them to migrate to Palestine, the 'Promised Land' where they settled permanently.

The Hebrews had also to carry a struggle with the native inhabitants of Palestine, known as Canaanites, under the leadership of Joshua. The Hebrews steadily captured the Canaanite cities. Ultimately the two people intermarried and became one nation.

2. **The Hebrew Kings.** For a long time the Hebrews had no centralized government. There were about 12 independent tribes who were administered by their respective Patriarchs. The position of Palestine was, however, not very strong as it lay between the two great empires of Egypt and Assyria. They had also to face the new invaders, the Philistines who came from the Island of Crete. Forced by the circumstances the Hebrew tribes formed themselves into a united nation under the leadership of Saul (1028-1013 B.C.) who was their first king. Saul died on the battle-field fighting against the Philistines.

Saul was succeeded by his son *David* who was a great warrior. He captured Jerusalem from the Canaanites and made it the capital of his kingdom. It became the centre of Hebrew culture. He extended the boundaries of his empire and established peace and order. He was not only a great warrior and conqueror but also a great poet and musician. He was known as 'Great Psalmist'.

of Israel' and his Psalms were very famous.' In the Bible he has been called '*a man after God's own heart*'. He planned a beautiful temple to God Jehovah. He also encouraged trade.

David was succeeded by his son *Solomon* (973-933 B.C.), known as *Solomon the Wise*, in the history of the world. He expanded his empire, encouraged trade and brought prosperity to his people. He was famous for his wisdom, wealth and glory. He led a luxurious life and spent his wealth on pleasures and luxuries. As a result he had to impose heavy taxes on his subjects and consequently he lost their good-will.

3 The Break-up of the Kingdom The burden of Solomon's expensive habits fell on the people. It resulted in the defection of the ten northern tribes in the reign of Solomon's son and successor (Rehoam) in 930 B.C. The ten tribes set-up a separate kingdom of Israel in the north with Samaria as its capital. Its inhabitants were called Samaritans. The two southern tribes formed the kingdom of Judah, whose capital was Jerusalem.

The division of the Hebrews into two kingdoms made their defence difficult. Being tempted by their wealth the Assyrians invaded Israel in 722 B.C. The Assyrians, however, failed to conquer Judah. This little weak kingdom of Judah survived till 586 B.C., when the Chaldean king Nebuchadnezzar, Conquered Judah, destroyed Jerusalem and carried the people away as captives to Babylonia.

However, the Hebrews were freed from the Babylonian captivity in 539 B.C. when the Persian ruler Cyrus overthrew the kingdoms of the Chaldeans and Assyrians.

The freedom of the Hebrews proved short-lived. The conquests of the Greeks under *Alexander the Great* brought the Hebrews under the Greek domination. In 70 A.D., the Roman emperor Titus invaded the land of the Hebrews. He destroyed Jerusalem, occupied Palestine and with that the Jewish State came to an end. Many of the Jews were scattered throughout the *Roman Empire*. Later on Palestine was captured by the *Arabs and the Turks*. The Jews were rendered homeless and they led a wandering life.

After the lapse of so many centuries, especially after the Second World War, the new and independent state of Israel was created in 1948 and the Jews got a chance to lead a free life in their old homeland once again.

4 Religion. The Jews did not carry on trade by sea to the extent that the Phoenicians did, nor did they become great builders. Politically, they were never of great importance. They never founded an empire. They contributed very little in architecture, painting or sculpture. But they left a rich legacy in religion and literature in the form of monotheism and the Old Testament.

The seeds of religion were sown while the Hebrews led a wandering life. Many of the gods of the Canaanites and the Arameans (of Syria) were accepted by the Hebrews. Later on the

cultural contact with advanced people proved a great help in the development of an advanced religious philosophy. The various Hebrew prophets developed the idea of universality of God or Monotheism. Their God was known as Jehovah. The Hebrews thought that he possessed human form, with hands, feet, eyes and a heart. He had all sympathies with a man. They thought that God spoke to them through prophets.

Moses was the first prophet of the Hebrews. He taught that *Jehovah was the sole God of the Hebrews* and inflicted heavy punishments on the enemies. It is said that Moses led his followers to the foot of the Holy Mountain. They committed themselves to one God and promised to worship Jehovah. Jehovah gave commandments to his people. The people thought that so long as they obeyed these commandments, they would be protected by Jehovah.

Amos (260 B.C.) was another great prophet of the Hebrews. He believed that God had no material form but that one could see, hear, and feel him in spirit. He proclaimed a new doctrine, that *Jehovah was, God not of Israel only but was the creator and the religious ruler of the whole world*. The same idea pervades the teachings of most of the prophets who succeeded him.

Isaiah (724-768 B.C.) carried on the ideas of Amos. He preached that Jehovah was a universal God who ruled over the whole world and punished the evil doers and the wicked. He justified defeat of the Hebrews at the hands of the Assyrians by saying that God had inflicted punishment on them for their sinful and evil deeds. According to **J.E Swain** this foreshadowed the idea of a universal God and put the responsibility for deliverance directly on the people. Isaiah assured the depressed people that Jehovah would send his Messiah to put an end to their political division, suffering and misery and introduce an age of peace and brotherhood.

The credit for establishing pure monotheism among the Hebrews goes to the prophet, *Jeremiah* (625-586 B.C.). He regarded God (Jehovah) all powerful, all-knowing, holy and merciful and omnipresent. **Dr. J.E Swain** observes, "*The prophets reformed Judaism and developed Jehovah from a heathen, jealous God into an omnipotent God of Love*". Gradually, the conception of "*one God*", was developed into an ethical monotheism.

With the passage of time the influence of these prophets began to decrease and that of the priests went on increasing. It, however, brought about a *great deterioration* in the religion. To win the favour of God, these priests laid great stress on prayers, offerings, sacrifices etc. With the passage of time they became corrupt and worldly and their teachings and influence lowered the value of the teachings of the prophets. Under these conditions people began to wait for the arrival of the Messiah.

Ultimately *Jesus Christ* was born of Hebrew race and he proclaimed himself as Messiah. Many of the Jews refused to accept his assertion and continued to wait for the arrival of Messiah. But

the followers of Christ, called the Christians, thought Christ to be the Messiah.

Influence. The religious influence of the Hebrews cannot be overlooked and ignored. Two of the world's great religions namely Christianity and Islam are greatly influenced by Judaism. The Christian respect the old Testament as they respect the New Testament. Christ proclaimed himself to be Messiah, who had come for the redemption of the world. Many of the teachings of the Prophet Mohammed are based on those of the Hebrew prophets.

The Hebrews believed that God had a universal moral law for all the world. They set up new and noble concepts of morality and ethics. Those ideas of the Hebrews did much to raise the moral standards of individuals and communities, and they continue to influence the life of the people of the world even to-day.

About the influence of Judaism **Hayes** writes—

"Unless one knows something of human sacrifices, the vicious rites and degrading beliefs that make up other religions, he cannot realise how much the world owes to the Hebrews as teachers of religion and morals".

5 Literature. The Hebrew literature is predominantly religious in nature, "*The Old Testament and the Bible*" and the *Talmud* are their famous works. The Old Testament is one of the greatest and the most beautiful pieces of literature produced by any people of any time. It contains legal codes, moral laws, commentary and exposition by great teachers and prophets, traditional poetry and mythological explanations of the Hebrews. In this connection **H A Davies** remarks "*Their Bible has done more for the moral and religious progress of mankind than any other book or collection of books*". **John Conard Appel** has rightly remarked that, "*The Bible is really a library of books written by a number of men at different times. The thirty nine books of the old Testament are part of the Bible that the Hebrews gave to the world. In addition to being great literature, these books give us a history of the Hebrew people and are the source of inspiration and guidance for members of the Hebrews and Christian religion*". Similarly, **Dr J.E. Swain** writes "*As history, it ranks with the works of Herodotus and Gibbon and as poetry it ranks with the work of Shakespeare and Goethe*".

Talmud is another important literary work of the Hebrews. It is a collection of laws and commentaries. It is to the Jews what the New Testament is to the Christians. In the words of **Dr. J.E. Swain**, "*It is almost a library in itself, including a record of debates and decisions, poetry and philosophy, and wisdom and mysticism that cover more than 800 years*".

Some of the other important literary works of the Jews are the *Book of Joshua*, the *Book of Judges* and the *Book of Psalms*. The *Book of Joshua* is an epic and contains the exploits of a hero and the history of a people. The *Book of Judges* deals with a dramatic story of Samson. The *Book of Psalms* is an excellent poetry.

Regarding the religion, literature and great men of the Hebrews Will Durant remarks, "*The numerically and geographically insignificant Jews gave to the world one of its greatest literatures, two of its most influential religions and so many of its pr- foundest men*".

Summary of the Chapter in a Nut-shell

The Hebrews. They belonged to Semitic race and inhabited the lower reaches of the river Euphrates and Tigris

1 **Early History.** Their patriarch Abiahah led them to Palsetine about 2,000 B.C. , Migration to Egypt in about 1300 B.C. , Persecution of Hebrews by Egyptian Pharaons , Then migration to Palestine again under Moses , Conquest of Canaanites and permanent settlement in Palestine

2 **The Hebrew kings** Struggle with the new invader, the Philistines of Crete , Unity under first king Saul , David defeated Philistines of Crete and made Jerusalem his capital : Solomor's Luxurious life and its results

3. **Break-up of the Kingdom** In 930 B.C. there were two kingdoms—kingdom of Israel in the North and kingdom of Judah in south , Conquest of Israel by the Assyrians in 722 B.C., Chaldean conquered the kingdom of Judah in 586 B.C. , Freedom from the Babylonian captivity in 539 , Domination of the Greeks under Alexander , Roman conquest of the Hebrews, in 70 A.D. ; Arab and Turkish domination , Free State of Israel in 1948

4. **Religion** (1) *Moses*—Jehovah the sole God of the Hebrews. (2) *Amos*—Jehovah creator and religious ruler of the whole world (3) *Isuah*—developed the idea of universal God who punished evil-doers , (4) *Jeremiah* believed in pure monotheism (5) Influence of priests and deterioration in religion. (6) Arrival of Messiah as redeemer. (7) Influence on Islam and Christianity and moral influence

5. **Literature.** (1) The Old Testament and the Bible—its religious and historical importance (2) Talmud is a collection of laws and commentaries (3) The Book of Joshua ; The Book of Judges and The Book of Psalms

University and other Important Questions

1. Explain why the Jews can be regarded as one of the most remarkable people in the history of mankind. (B.U. 1962)
2. What does the modern world owe to the Hebrews ? (B.U. 1958)
3. Trace briefly the history of ancient Hebrews, and estimate their legacy to mankind (B.U. 1967)
4. Write in ten lines what you know about the following .—
(a) Abraham (b) Moses (c) Philistines (d) David (e) Solomon (f) Babylonian captivity (g) The Old Testament.
5. Choose the correct answer in the following.
(a) The Hebrews came from Egypt/Rome/Mesopotamia.
(b) The Hebrews made Egypt/Palestine/Greece their permanent home.
(c) David was the 1st/2nd/3rd king of the Hebrews.
(d) The kingdom of Palestine broke up in 930/931/932 B.C.
(e) The Kingdom of Israel was over-thrown in 722/723/724 B.C.

The Phoenicians, The Hitties and the Cretans

SECTION 1—THE PHOENICIANS

1. **The Land and the People.** The Phoenicians, like the Babylonians and the Hebrews, were a Semitic people. At one time they had been desert wanderers near the Red Sea, and that was perhaps why the ancient Greeks called them "Phoenicians" or the "Red Men". Between four or five thousand years ago they made their home on the east coast of the Mediterranean, in Phoenicia, which lay to the north of the country of the Hebrews. This strip of land about 120 miles long and not more than twenty miles wide lay between the Lebanon Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea. They were dark bearded and fierce warriors. They built strongly fortified towns, the two most famous of their cities being Tyre and Sidon.

2. **Great Sailors.** The land being rocky, sandy and unsuitable for agriculture, the Phoenicians soon took to the sea in search of food and wealth. The Lebanon mountains furnished a bountiful supply of cedar-wood for ship-building. The rugged coast-line of Phoenicia furnished excellent harbours. Commerce and industry were there sole aim and pursuit. At first the boats were small and were used for travel along the coasts of Syria, but later on they made great ships. By 1000 B C they became great sailors who were known for their skill and courage. Their ships sailed through the Mediterranean and Black Sea and also beyond the straits of Gibraltar into the Atlantic ocean. When the power of Egypt and Crete had fallen the Phoenician fleets were the masters of the Mediterranean and they became the leading commercial enterprisers.

3. **Politics.** The Phoenicians never formed a single nation and they did not establish a kingdom under a strong central authority. They had a city-state form of government like the Greeks. They established well fortified cities along the coasts such as Tyre, Sidon, Byblos, Aradus, Berytus. Each city, with its adjoining farm lands, constituted a little state by itself. The most powerful city, at times, was recognized as ruling over all others; without, however, interfering in their internal affairs. They were all independent of one another, thus only acknowledging allegiance.

to the mother city. There was no imperial administration in Phoenicia.

The Phoenicians attached little importance to political independence. They were ready to submit to foreign masters quite easily if they did not interfere with their trade. Hence the Egyptians, the Assyrians and the Babylonians dominated Phoenicia at different times. Later on, they were conquered by the Persians, then by the Greeks and finally by the Romans. The foreign powers gave them freedom of trade and the Phoenicians continued to flourish. Their sea-power had almost been destroyed before the days of Alexander the Great. (4th century B.C.)

4. Navigation and Commercial Colonies. The Phoenicians made great progress in the art of navigation. They were the earliest mariners of the world. They made great ships with as many as thirty rowers and with huge masts and sails. Their sailors were famous for their skill and courage. They, however, had no compasses and so they did most of their sailing in the day time. At night they generally cast their anchors; when they did steer at night they were guided by the Pole Star. The Phoenicians were very energetic and adventurous. Their seamen went to the westernmost parts of the Mediterranean and even pushed out to the Atlantic, sailing along the shores to the north until they reached Britain. **Herodotus**, an ancient Greek writer who was called, "The Father of History", tells us that the Phoenicians even made the tremendous voyage round the coasts of Africa from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. This happened 2000 years before Vasco-de-Gama sailed round the Cape of Good Hope.

As their trade flourished, the Phoenicians established their commercial colonies in Cyprus, Crete, different islands of the Aegean Sea, Sardinia, at the Black Sea coast, Marseilles, Cadiz, Cornwall, Carthage (North Africa) etc. They even maintained garrisons in Malta, Sicily and Corsica. Phoenician colonies were of three kinds. In civilized countries like Egypt they were contented with trading rights and they built their own bazars and docks. In uncivilized countries they established trading stations consisting of depots, and factories. In other parts they built towns, conquered the original inhabitants and governed the country, such colonies were Palermo in Sicily, Cadiz in Spain and Carthage in North Africa.

5 Trade and Industries. The Phoenicians were the leading commercial enterprisers. Their trade was enormous and it was not limited to any one commodity or place. In addition to activities on sea they carried on inland trade, organized a system of caravans which linked up the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf with the Mediterranean. They carried copper from Cyprus, silver, lead and iron from Spain, perfumes and spices from Arabia, gold, ivory and ostrich feathers from Africa, tin from Cornwall, flax and cotton from Egypt; ivory, spices, precious stones and cotton-goods from India, copper, tin, shell-fish for dyes from Greece. Generally their ships and caravans carried to distant places the goods

which the Phoenicians themselves manufactured such as pottery glass, beautifully coloured and embroidered cloth, purple dye and furniture etc. Most profitable of all was the slave trade introduced by the Phoenicians.

The Phoenicians were not only great traders but also skilled craftsmen. They made beautiful ornamented trays of gold, silver and bronze with pictures of trees and flowers and hunting scenes. They produced carved furniture out of rich wood and ivory. They were famous for the manufacture of purple dye and glass. The purple dye 'was called 'royal purple' because it was demanded greatly by the kings. It was also known as the 'Tyrian purple' because the city of Tyre was the main centre of its manufacture. The Phoenicians invented glass. Glass soon began to be used for making beads and later on many other useful and beautiful objects of glass were made. The Phoenician craftsmen were very skilful in carpentry. The Assyrian kings employed Phoenician workmen to make furniture for their royal palaces. It is said king Solomon employed them to build temple at Jerusalem. As the trade and industries flourished, the Phoenicians became very rich and prosperous.

6 Writing. The invention of alphabet is the greatest contribution of the Phoenicians to the modern world. They found that the old picture writing was too clumsy for keeping trade accounts. They made letters so that words could be spelt. They arranged these letters in order and gave each one a name. The first letter was 'aleph' which in Phoenician language meant an 'ox' and the second letter "beth" meaning a house and so on. They adopted 22 letters and each represented a single consonant. This full list of 22 letters came to be known as "alphabet". They introduced this new system of writing to the Greeks. The Greeks added vowels and completed it and carried it to Europe. English and many other languages of Europe today are written with letters developed from the alphabet which once the ancient Phoenicians invented. Thus the Phoenicians laid the foundation of the modern alphabet. They wrote on papyrus with pen and ink.

7 Carriers of Commerce and Culture The Phoenicians have been rightly called the carriers of trade and culture. They carried on trade with the peoples of Spain, France, Sicily, Egypt and Africa. In the course of time they picked up various elements of culture and carried them to various lands. They served as a connecting link between the east and the west. According to H. A. Davies, "*The Phoenicians were a very small nation but their influence in the ancient world was considerable, not because of any civilization which they developed, but because of what they did to spread the civilizations of others. The Phoenicians were sailors whose vessels sailed from end to end of the Mediterranean, and were the means whereby the benefits of civilization were first carried to many barbaric peoples. The Phoenicians carried various elements of eastern culture to the western world. In this connection W.H. Weech also writes, "The civilization of the west was also greatly influenced by the oriental designs passed on by the Phoenicians. - The lotus flower,*

the Sphinx and various winged monsters were all made familiar to western eyes by Phoenician craftsmen. Styles of dress were taken from one land to another as the result of the trade" The Græeks, adopted the Phoenician style in dress, art and in the technique of their craftsmanship. The credit for blending the cultures of Egypt and Babylonia and passing it to the succeeding generations also goes to the Phoenicians. The Egypt and Babylonia were the birth places of civilizations but the Phoenicians have been called the *'missionaries of civilization'* because they carried the Mediterranean civilization to the remote regions of the world and had a civilizing influence upon all such peoples with whom they came into contact through commercial intercourse and enterprises.

8. Unpopularity of the Phoenicians. Though the Phoenicians were great traders and carriers of culture to distant lands yet they were considered as the *"biggest liars of their Age."* They could not become popular as they had no regard for ethics and moral principles. It has been rightly observed about them that *"They made no distinction between trade and treachery, commerce and robbery, they stole from the weak, cheated the stupid and were honest with the rest."* Their cheating resulted in their unpopularity.

9. End of the Phoenicians. The increasing wealth of the Phoenicians incited the envy of the Great Powers of the ancient world. From time to time the Phoenicians served as tributaries to Egypt, Assyria, and Babylonia. In 573 B.C. Tyre was conquered by Nebuchadnezzar. Towards the end of this century Phoenicia became a Province of the Persian kingdom under Cyrus. In about 64 B.C. it was conquered by the Romans.

Though the Phoenicians were unpopular and regarded as *"the liars of their age"* yet their contribution can not be ignored and under-estimated. Prof. Hearnshaw has rightly observed. *"They improved the art of ship building, they developed the mechanism of exchange. They made more perfect the system of weights and measures. Above all, they took the symbolic writing of the Egyptians and simplified it into the alphabet, which is in universal use in the Western World at present day."*

SECTION 2—THE HITTITES

1. The Land and the People. A group of Indo-Europeans settled in the north and central parts of Asia Minor and set up their kingdom in about 2500 B.C. They were called Hittites. As they knew the use of iron and iron weapons, they easily overpowered the earlier inhabitants of this land and conquered it. They absorbed the local inhabitants. They were not civilized but they learnt much from the other contemporary advanced civilizations. They adopted the cuneiform writing of Mesopotamia and were greatly influenced in religious sphere by the Egyptians.

In 1925 B.C. they conquered Babylon and plundered it. They were a constant danger to the power of the Assyrians. Their power reached its height about 1400 B.C. For a long time they posed a threat to the Egyptians. Ramses II of Egypt married a daughter of the Hittite king to have friendly relations with the Hittites and thus he saved Egypt from their invasions. Their power began to decline about 1200 B.C. and it was broken by the nomads from the South-Eastern Europe.

2. Iron Tools and Coins. The Hittites were the first to use iron and make iron tools. This was their greatest contribution to the civilized people of that age. There were iron mines in Northern Asia Minor. The Hittites worked there, excavated the iron-ore and taught other peoples how to use this metal. So they introduced to the world the Iron Age in which we are still living. They were not only good farmers but also great traders. They carried on trade with the peoples of Central and Western Asia. They gave up the barter system and carried money and used it as a measure of exchange.

3. Writing. The clay tablets discovered from the various cities of the Hittites reveal that they used the Cuneiform writing of the Mesopotamians.

4. Art and Architecture. The Hittite art was realistic. The remains of the statues, discovered from their cities, show the artistic skill of their sculptors. Their animal carvings were very impressive. Their art greatly influenced the Assyrian sculpture and it is believed that the Assyrian sculpture were of Hittite origin. They were the teachers of Assyrians in architecture. They built cities like Hattusas, Khatli and Carchemish etc. The Assyrians copied their technique of constructing walls, gates, palace porches, and methods of decoration. J. H. Breasted has rightly observed, "*The powerful walled city of Hattusas was the first large city in Asia. It far surpassed the Babylon of that day in size, and the Nineveh of the Assyrian emperors was still some six or seven centuries in future.*"

Owing to their position in Asia Minor the Hittites served as a connecting link between the East and the West and helped in the advance of Eastern Civilization into Europe.

SECTION 3—THE CRETANS OR MINOANS OR AEGEANS

1. People and the Land. The excavations of Cretan cities especially Knossos by a German archaeologist Schliemann and the excavations of such outposts as Troy, Mycenae and Tiryns by an English archaeologist Sir Arthur Evans have revealed that a civilization had taken root in Europe as early as 3,000 B.C. in the island of Crete. Crete is the most important of the Aegean Islands. It lies between Egypt and Greece and forms a link between Asia, Africa and Europe.

It is uncertain whence the Cretans came. They probably belonged to the short, dark Mediterranean race. Their kings were called Minos. So these people came to be known as Minoans. Since this civilization extended upto the Aegean Islands so it is also called as the Aegean Civilization.

The Cretan Civilization flourished and reached its height between 2,000 and 1400 B.C. Knossos was the important centre of this civilization. This civilization developed independently of Egypt and Mesopotamia. That is why the island of Crete has been called the 'Cradle of European Civilization'.

2. Political Life. The Cretans were ruled by kings called Minos. The Minos were priest-kings. The king enjoyed great power and authority but he was not a despot. His position and power depended on how well he governed the state. The people recognised his superior position but they were not his slaves. The king could not encroach upon their freedom. His main duties were to dispense with justice, to command the army and to supervise the public works.

The capital-city of Knossos was situated near the northern coast of the Island. The king lived in a grand and beautiful palace built on the top of a hill. The king often led a luxurious life.

The king carried on the administration with the help of a large number of *officials*. The *clerks* maintained the accounts. The records and accounts were written on clay-tablets but their writing has not been deciphered as yet.

3. Economic Life—

(a) *Agriculture and Fishing* The Cretans cultivated land and grew fruits and corn in the small but fertile valleys of Crete. They fished along the coasts.

(b) *Industry* The Cretans were skilled in many arts and crafts and especially in pottery and metal work. Cretan vases were painted in beautiful colours, with designs of flowers and fishes and were famous throughout Egypt and other eastern countries. They made beautiful articles of gold, copper and bronze. Some scholars believe that the Cretans were the first to use bronze. Their fine swords and daggers show a high degree of craftsmanship.

(c) *Trade.* As their number increased, the Cretans found that the island could not produce enough food for their existence so they began to trade with the Mediterranean countries. Like the Phoenicians, the Cretans were great sailors and built big ships which could make long voyages. They carried all kinds of goods between the islands of Aegean Sea and Egypt, Greece, Syria and other lands. They exported pottery, wine, olive oil, daggers, swords and gold cups. Their import consisted of raw metals and luxury goods. They imported articles from Northern Europe and distant China.

The Cretans established *colonies and trading stations* in Cyprus and in the Greek Peninsula which grew into big *cities*, e.g., Tirysus, Mycenae and Troy

4. Social Life—

(1) *Dress*. The Cretans were more careful about their dress and appearance. The men wore embroidered kilts, long boots and ornaments. The women wore tight blouses with wide sleeves and low cut bodices, skirts with many frills and tall hats. They were very fond of curly hair. The Cretans looked more modern than any other ancient people.

(2) *Amusements and Sports*. The Cretans loved open-air life and out-door games. Every man in Crete was trained as a soldier. They were very fond of boxing. Both men and girls enjoyed the cruel and dangerous sport of bull-fighting which required both strength and skill.

The refined tastes, elegant costumes and love for out-door life reveal that the Cretans were very enthusiastic people and had a broad outlook on life.

5 Art and Architecture—

(1) *Architecture*. The Cretans were very fond of erecting beautiful cities and buildings. The capital city of Knossos, with a population of 80,000 was the first great city in the history of Europe. The king's palace stood on the top of a hill. It was a grand and magnificent building and a fine example of the Cretan architecture. It was made of white stones and was a little town in itself. A large court-yard was surrounded with many separate buildings. There were halls with tall columns, many passages, wide stairways and terraces. It had an efficient system of water supply and underground sewage. The cities of Tirysus and Mycenae were adorned with grand buildings having spacious courts and were ornamented with elaborate gate-ways. They were equipped with modern facilities such as copper drainage pipes and bathrooms. They had beautiful stairways and their walls were artistically painted.

(2) *Painting*. The pictures on the walls of the palaces and houses of the rich people indicate the artistic skill of the Cretan painters. Plants, beasts and human-beings were their favourite subjects. Hunting scenes, scenes of ships sailing in the seas and the bull-fighting scenes reveal the high standard of painting of the Cretan artists. Naturalness and originality were the main features of their paintings.

(3) *Sculpture*. The Cretans were, however, not good sculptors like the Egyptians. They neither built grand temples nor carved out great stone-statues.

(4) *Other Arts*. The Cretan craftsmen were very skilful in minor arts such as pottery, jewellery and metal works. Their delicate pottery jars, painted with beautiful colours and designs were appreciated in the markets of the world. Craftsmen in metal added to the glory of the Cretan art. Their golden cups and

jewellery display the artistic ability of the artists and the refined tastes of the people of Crete

(5) *Writing*. For keeping records and accounts, the Cretans used a kind of picture writing, like the Egyptians. Their pictures were, however, more brief and were made more quickly than the Egyptian pictures. Many clay-tablets, containing Cretan writings, have been discovered but no one is able to read them even today. They wrote on clay tablets with reed-pen and ink.

6 **Religion** The Cretans worshipped "*The Mother Goddess*". She was regarded as the source of all things and the mother of men and animals. A *God* was associated with the Mother Goddess. He was the master of men and animals. Various *magic rites and ceremonies*, also played an important part in the religion of the Cretans.

Because of the importance of the Mother Goddess, *women held an important place in the religious ceremonies*. There were, however, no temples nor large statues of the Gods. Sacrifices were made to Gods. Various seasonal festivals were also held. The Cretans had faith in the Cult of the Dead. But the *priests did not dominate the religious, social and economic life of the Cretans* as they did in Egypt and Mesopotamia.

7. **Decline of the Cretans**. The Cretan Culture reached its height about 1,600 B.C., by which time it had influenced the whole of the Aegean islands. Its arts and crafts were copied by other people. Its cities were destroyed again and again by earthquakes. They, however, soon recovered from these disasters and rebuilt their towns. In the 14th century the economic superiority of the Cretans in the Aegean areas was, however, broken. The tribes of the Greek Peninsula also attacked and ravaged the island of Crete.

8 **Importance of the Cretan Civilization** The Cretans were the carriers of commerce and culture. They spread their culture in the whole of the Aegean lands. They established their colonies and cities in the mainland of Greece which became the centres of this Civilization. They influenced the life of the Greeks to a great extent, so they are considered as the fore-runners and predecessors of the Greeks. The two civilizations are so closely connected with each other that the Greek culture has been called the daughter of Aegean Civilization. It is also remarked that Crete was the window through which culture and civilization travelled from the East to the West. In this way Crete served as a connecting link between the two.

Summary of the Chapter in a Nut-shell

1. **The Phoenicians**. (1) The Land and the people—Semitic people occupying land between the Lebanon Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea. (2) Great sailors. (3) Politics—They founded great cities like Tyre, Sidon, Byblos etc., City states. (4) Navigation and Commercial colonies. (5) Trade and industries—They had commercial relations with many countries, they were skilled craftsmen especially in making glass and purple dye.

(6) Invention of Alphabet. (7) Carriers of Commerce and culture ; Connecting link between East and West. (8) Biggest liars of the Age and so unpopular. (9) The end of the Phoenicians in 64 B.C.

2. **The Hittites** (1) The land and the people , Indo-Europeans lived in Asia Minor , (2) Use of Iron tools and coined money. (3) Cuneiform writing. (4) Art and architecture—Art realistic, teachers of Assyrians in architecture. (5) Connecting link between East and West

3 **The Cretans**, (1) *People and Land*—Mediterranean race who inhabited the island of Crete , also known as Minoans and Aegeans. (2) *Political Life*—Ruled by the kings having great power and authority , Kings ruled with the help of officials and clerks; People enjoyed great freedom (3) *Economic Life*—Agriculture, fishing ; Crafts like pottery and metal work Trade and commerce ; Founding of colonies and trading stations (4) *Social Life*—Dress, amusement and out-door sports like bull fighting (5) *Art and Architecture*—Architecture, Painting, sculpture, minor arts and Art of writing (6) *Religion*—Magic rites and ceremonies , Worship of the Mother Goddess and a God ; Importance of women in religious life , No domination of priests (7) *Decline of the Cretan Civilization*—in the 14th century B.C by the Greek invasions (8) *Importance of this Civilization*—Carriers of culture and fore-runners of the Greeks.

University and other Important Questions

1. Give a brief account of the Phoenicians. (B U. 1965, 66, 68, 71)
2. Discuss the contribution of the Phoenicians to the world Civilization. (B U. 1964, 65, 66)
3. What does the world owe to the Phoenicians ? (B U. 1960)
4. Why did the Phoenicians found colonies in Mediterranean lands ?
5. In what respect did the Phoenicians contribute to European culture ?
6. What does the world owe to the Hittites ?
7. How did the Hittites help in the march of Civilization ?
8. Describe the main features of the Aegean Civilization.
9. Describe briefly the Cretan Civilization and trace its influence on the neighbouring countries
10. Describe the importance of the Aegeans in the World History.
11. Write in about ten lines what you know about the following :—
(a) Phoenician colonies (b) The Phoenician Alphabet (c) The Hittites.
(d) Minoans (e) Knossos. (f) The Minoans architecture.
12. Give the answer in 'Yes' or 'No'
(a) The Phoenicians lived in the land situated between the Lebanon Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea.
(b) The Phoenicians were great sailors
(c) The Hittites lived in the Aegean Islands
(d) The Cretan Civilization was put to an end by the Greeks.
(e) The Aegeans were the fore-runners of the Greeks
13. Fill in the blanks :—
(a) The Phoenicians were the first to invent——
(b) The greatest contribution of the Hittites was——
(c) The Cretans lived in——
(d) The Cretans belonged to——race
(e) Knossos was the capital city of——.

Ancient Persia

SECTION 1—RISE AND FALL OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE

1 **The People and the Land.** The Medes and the Persians belonged to a branch of the Aryans or Indo-Europeans who occupied the land in Central Europe between the Persian Gulf and the Black Sea. The Medes settled to the south of the Caspian Sea and to the east of Assyria while the Persians settled just north of the Persian Gulf. They were hardy and vigorous people. **Herodotus** observed that the Persian father taught their sons three things: to ride, to use a bow and to tell the truth.

By 700 B.C. the Medes set up their kingdom with Ecbatane as their capital. The Persians did like wise and fixed their capital at Susa. But for many years the Persians acknowledged the Medes as their overlords and served as vassals.

Soon the power of the Medes began to decline and the Persian king **Cyrus** brought the Medes under his control and set up an independent Persian state in 550 B.C.

2. The Persian Kings and Rise of the Empire—

(1) **Cyrus (552-528 B.C.).** Cyrus was the first great Persian king. He is credited to have united all the Persian tribes under his rule. Within three years he conquered the whole of the Median territory. His sudden rise greatly alarmed the neighbouring states so much so that Egypt, Babylonia (or *Chaldea*), Lydia (*Asia Minor*) and Sparta formed a combination against him. But they all failed to check his progress. In 546 B.C. he defeated **Croesus**, the King of Lydia and took him as a prisoner. In 539 the Chaldeans were defeated and Babylon fell without a struggle. Eleven years later, **Cyrus** died in 528 B.C. while fighting against the nomads. But he had laid the foundation of a vast empire which extended from north-west of India to the Mediterranean, and from the Caspian Sea in the north to the Persian Gulf in the south.

Cyrus was a generous king and a wise and tolerant ruler. After defeating the Chaldeans he freed the Jews from the Babylonian captivity and helped them to settle in Palestine once again. **Will Durant** has rightly observed about his achievements "*Royal in spirit*

and action, capable of wise administration as well as dramatic conquests, generous to the defeated and loved by those who had been his enemies", Cyrus was indeed, "the greatest hero before Alexander".

(2) *Cambyses (528 to 521 B C)*. Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyses. He lacked the wisdom, tolerance and generosity of his father. He was, however, a great conqueror who conquered Egypt in 525 B.C. His rule was very oppressive. He committed suicide in 521 B.C.

(3) *Darius, the Great (521 to 485 B C)*. Darius was the greatest Persian ruler. He came to the throne in 521 B.C. He was a great military genius as well as a great religious and political organiser. He was well-versed both in the arts of war and peace.

His empire was very large and there were severe revolts in many parts of his empire when he ascended the throne. His first task was to keep all parts of his empire quite intact. He put 3,000 men of Babylon to death to crush their rebellious spirit and to maintain law and order. He extended the boundaries of his empire by annexing the valley of Indus in the east and some Greek islands and cities in the west.

Darius was a benevolent despot and an enlightened ruler. He was a good organiser who set-up an efficient government in his kingdom. He divided his empire into 20 provinces each under a Satrap or a Governor. He organised the army and stationed a military commander in each province. He also stationed a secretary in each provincial capital, to observe the activities of the officials and to report the same to the king. He also appointed spies who were known as "*The King's Eyes and Ears*". He built magnificent roads. The Royal Road, about 1700 miles long, connected the capital city of Susa with Sardis in Asia Minor. He organised an efficient postal system and toned up the system of Justice.

He wanted to make Persia a great Sea-Power. He organised navy and built a great war fleet with the help of the Phoenicians. He obtained the services of foreign sailors and navigators. He encouraged navigation and a sailor named Scylax was sent to explore the river Indus. He reopened the old Egyptian canal so that his fleet could sail from the Mediterranean into the Red Sea.

He encouraged trade, commerce and industry and undertook various steps to promote internal and foreign trade. He introduced gold coins and permitted his Governors or Satraps to mint silver coins. As a result of this and other fiscal measures his people became both prosperous and happy and they did not raise voice even against heavy taxes.

He was also a great patron of art and architecture. He constructed grand palaces and buildings. He encouraged learning, education and study of medicine and astronomy. By introducing an efficient system of administration he brought about all-round

development and prosperity in his empire and was able to hold together the largest empire the world had yet seen. **Will Durant** rightly observes in this connection, "*Each region sustained its own language, laws, customs, morals, religion and coinage and sometimes its native dynasty of kings. Many of the tributary nations were well satisfied with the situation Under Darius I, the Persian empire was an achievement in political organization*".

3. **Decline of the Empire.** In 499 B.C., the Greeks rebelled and attacked Sardis with the help of the Athens. At this Darius declared war against Greece but was badly defeated at the Battle of Marathon in 490 B.C. It gave a severe blow to his power and prestige and halted his advance towards the west. Darius was succeeded by his son *Xerxes*. To avenge the defeat of his father he invaded Greece but was defeated at Salamis and Mycale. It gave a death blow to the glory of Persia once for all. Xerxes was murdered and succeeded by his son *Darius III*. Under this weak and inefficient ruler the Persian Empire began to decline. Alexander, the Great, conquered it in 331 B.C. and put an end to its glory.

SECTION 2—CONTRIBUTION OF ANCIENT PERSIA

The world is indebted to the Persians for the following things :—

1 **Imperial Organisation.** Darius I was not only a great warrior, fighter and a military commander but also a great political organiser. He was an enlightened despot who set up an efficient system of government. His imperial organisation served as a model for various despots of other countries.

(1) *The Provincial Government.* Darius I divided his empire into 20 provinces known as Satrapies. Each Satrapy was governed by a governor called a Satrap. He was appointed by the king and was responsible to him alone. In order to weld the diverse people of his empire into unity and to establish his hold on all parts of his empire he allowed a good deal of local freedom to provinces or Satrapies so long as they paid tribute and furnished soldiers for the Persian empire. Each province was allowed to retain its own language, laws, customs, morals, religion and coinage provided they remained loyal. He interfered little in the life of the people. The main duties of the Satrap were to maintain internal law and order and to collect taxes.

(2) *The Provincial Commander.* A military commander was stationed in each province. The provincial army was put under his charge. He looked after the provincial defence. He drew his salary from the Satrap but he was appointed by the king and was responsible to him alone. This provision was made in the provincial administration to keep a check on the power of the Satrap and to curb the rebellious tendency in the province.

(3) *The Spy System.* The spy system was also organized very efficiently. In each province the king stationed spies or informers. They were known as "*The King's Eyes and Ears*". They travelled throughout the province and informed the king what happened in various parts of the empire. They kept an eye both on the provincial governors and people and reported to the king any acts of disloyalty that they might discover. This provision was made in the administration to prevent rebellions.

(4) *The Imperial Secretary.* Besides a Satrap and a Military General an official known as the Imperial Secretary was posted in each provincial capital. He was responsible to the king. He observed the actions of the provincial officials and submitted a report to the king.

(5) *Roads and Postal System.* Roads were built throughout the empire. The longest road called the Royal Road was 1700 miles long. It passed through Susa, cut across the Zagros and the Taurus mountains and then to Sardis the capital of Lydia and thence to the coast. Inns were built at regular intervals and facilities for food and sleeping were provided for the travellers and the merchants. An efficient postal system was also established. The road-postal system helped to transport the armies and messengers from one place to another quickly to put down rebellions and to promote trade and commerce. All these means enabled the Persian king to hold together the various parts of his vast empire.

(6) *Administration of Justice.* The administration of justice was well organised and based on the principle of equality. All were equal before law. "Speakers of Law" were appointed to interpret and explain the laws. Cases were disposed of quickly. Bribery was regarded as a capital offence both for the giver and the taker. Punishments were very severe and sometimes very cruel. The system of trial by ordeal also prevailed. Poisoning, impaling, stoning, hanging, burning alive and smouldering with hot ashes were some of the cruel punishments which were awarded for various offences.

(7) *Army and Navy.* The imperial army consisted of the troops provided by the provinces. Each provincial division had its own colour and arms. Special attention was paid in organising a powerful navy. Services of the foreign sailors and navigators were also enlisted. Darius I organised a Phoenician fleet and encouraged navigation.

Will Durant has paid glowing tribute to the imperial organisation of Persia in the following words, "*The Persian Empire was the most successful experiment in imperial government that the Mediterranean world would know before the coming of Rome, which was destined to inherit much of the earlier empire's, political structure and administrative forms Each region retained its own language, laws, customs, morals, religion and coinage.....under, Darius I, the Persian Empire was an achievement in Political organisation*"

2. **The Arts.** There are very few examples of fine arts produced by the Persians in ancient times. Perhaps religion stood in the way of the development of art. According to **H. A. Davies**, *'Persian architecture, which must have been very impressive, was not original. The huge terraces on which the palaces stood were copied from Babylonia, the winged bulls at the palace gates from Assyria, the vast colonnades in front of the palaces from Egypt. But the Persians deserve praise for their powers of assimilation.'* Cyrus constructed a palace at Pasargadae and Darius built a grand palace at Persepolis. They are the fine examples of the Persian architecture.

3 **Writing** When the Persians came into contact with the people of Asia Minor, they had no written language. According to **Dr. J E Swain** the old Persian Language was closely related to Sanskrit. Later on they developed an alphabet consisting of 39 Cuneiform signs. They wrote on clay tablets. The inscriptions on large stones were carved out in the same language.

The Persian Cuneiform script was deciphered by Henry Rawlinson in 1847. The Persians were more interested in hunting and fighting than in reading and writing. Hence they produced little that was note-worthy in the field of literature.

4 **Religion.** The Persians made an important and interesting contribution in the field of religion. In the beginning they worshipped gods like Ashura, Anaheta, Mithras and Haoma and believed that they resided in natural objects. Later on Zoroaster laid the foundation of a great religion called Zoroastrianism. It was based on Monotheism and soon it became very popular.

(1) **Zoroaster.** According to Persian tradition Zoroaster, the founder of Zoroastrianism was born about 1000 B.C. in north western Iran. Evil spirits tried to choke him soon after his birth. But he laughed aloud immediately after his birth and the evil spirits ran away. He left the society and wandered about in the forests and on the mountains in search of light. He received divine revelation during his wanderings and was ordered by the supreme God to preach his teachings to the suffering people and show them the path of salvation. In the beginning he had to face many hardships and nobody listened to him. First of all his cousin became his follower. Then the mighty ruler of Iran named Vishtaspa or Hystaspes also embraced this religion. After that this religion spread rapidly and soon became very popular.

(2) **Zoroastrianism or Teachings of Zoroaster :—**The teachings of Zoroaster are contained in the book named Avesta. It is written in the Zind language and the followers of Zoroaster consider it as their Bible. According to Zoroaster there is a constant struggle in this world between the forces of good and evil. The force of good, known as, 'Ashura-Mazda' represent "light, goodness, right dominion, piety, well-being and immortality." It is the fountain of light, purity and goodness. The force of evil called 'Ahriman'

represent evil, filth and darkness Zoroaster believed that in this struggle between these two forces 'Ahura-Mazda' would triumph in the long run. According to him everybody would be either punished or rewarded according to his deeds on the Day of Judgement. He said, "*All the hills and mountains would meet and everyone would have to pass through the molten lava. To the righteous the lava would feel no hotter than the warm milk, but to the wicked it would be scalding hot. After the victory of Mazda there would be no evil and everything would be peaceful and quiet.*"

(3) *Moral Life* Zoroaster laid great stress on virtuous and moral life. A man must have respect for women, honesty, justice, purity and righteousness. Man's duty is three fold — (i) To make a friend of an enemy, (ii) to make a wicked man righteous and (iii) to make an ignorant person learned. His philosophy can be summed up in these words. "*Good thoughts, good words and good deeds*"

Zoroaster was deadly against the worship of idols. He advised his followers not to bury or burn the dead but expose them to the birds of air in the open. He emphasized the worship of Sun and Fire because he regarded them as the symbols of the Almighty God or the Lord of Purity.

(4) *Decline.* In the beginning this religion was very simple. With the passage of time many rituals and ceremonies and magical hymns of Magi found their way in this religion and it became very complicated and expensive. So it began to decline and the number of its followers decreased day by day. The Parsis of India and Iran still follow this religion.

(5) *Importance.* About the importance of this religion **Dr. J.E Swain** observes "*It served as a high standard of conduct for the Persians for centuries and left its mark on later religions.*" According to Greek historian **Herodotus**, truth speaking is the greatest quality of the Persians. "*Better death than to be guilty of falsehood*" was the common proverb among them. Zoroastrianism had great influence on Judaism, Christianity and even on Islam. They adopted some of the elements of this religion. The Jews borrowed the idea of hell and Satan from this religion and later on passed it on to Christianity and Islam. This religion had a civilizing effect on mankind as it laid great stress on righteousness and pure life. It is one of the most important contributions of the Persians to the world.

Conclusion. The Persians, like the Phoenicians, were carriers of commerce, culture and civilization. Their great ideas and fine tastes greatly influenced the lives of the people with whom they came into contact. In this connection **Dr. J.E Swain** observes, "*They improved on the Assyrian system of political administration and made possible a period of peace and prosperity that lasted nearly 200 years. Their religion was their most original achievement. The Persians succeeded in bringing the various civilization centres*

under one rule, which worked towards the development of a more cosmopolitan culture. The work of unification, begun under the Persians, was carried forward with great success by Alexander the Great"

Summary of the Chapter in a Nut-shell

SECTION 1—Rise and Fall of the Persian Empire

1. **The People and the Land** The Medes and Persians belonged to the Aryan race, The Medes settled to the east of Assyria, the Persians settled to the south of Media, near the Persian Gulf; Both set up their kingdoms by 700 B.C., The Medes dominated the Persians. In 550 the Persian king Cyrus set up an independent Persian state.

2 The Persian Kings—

(1) *Cyrus* (552-528 B.C.). Established Persian state in 550 B.C.; conquered Media in 549 B.C.; Overthrew the confederation of Lydia, Sparta, Egypt and Babylon; Conquest of the Chaldeans and Babylonians, Master of vast Empire, Died in 528 B.C.; A generous, wise and tolerant ruler; Freed the Jews from the captivity of Babylon.

(2) *Cambyses* (528 to 521 B.C.) Oppressive ruler; Conquered Egypt in 528 B.C.; Committed suicide in 521 B.C.

(3) *Darius* (521 to 485 B.C.) Crushed the rebellions in provinces, Extension of Empire, Enlightened despot; Set up an efficient system of administration; Built roads and Postal system; Organised sea power, Encouraged trade, commerce and industry; Built palaces.

3. **Decline of the Empire.** Defeat of Darius at the hands of the Greeks at Marathon, Defeat of Xerxes at Salamis and Mycale; under the domination of Alexander in 331 B.C.

SECTION 2—Contribution of Ancient Persian

(1) *Imperial Organization.* (1) The division of Empire into 20 provinces and provincial government under a Satrap; (2) The Provincial Commander; (3) The Spy System; (4) The Imperial Secretary, (5) Roads and Postal System, (6) Administration of Justice, (7) Army and Navy

(2) *The Arts.* Persian art was not original, They borrowed much from other nations in architecture, They built great palaces.

(3) *Writing.* Invention of alphabet of 39 Cuneiform signs; They wrote on clay tablets

(4) *Religion.* (1) Worship of nature gods, (2) Development of Zoroastrianism by Zoroaster, (3) Teachings of Zoroaster, (4) Emphasis on moral life, (5) Decline, (6) Importance.

University & Other Important Questions

1. Give an account of the organization of the Persian Empire under Darius.
 2. Trace the rise and fall of the Persian Empire. What is the significance of this Empire in Ancient History. (B.U. 1963)
 3. Explain the contribution of the ancient Persians with special reference to the imperial organisation and religion. (B.U. 1969)
 4. What was the legacy of Ancient Persia?
 5. Write an essay on Zoroaster and his teachings.
 6. Write short notes on the following :—
 - (a) Cyrus (b) Zoroaster (B.U. 1967)
 - (c) Zoroastrianism (d) Darius (B.U. 1956, 1965)
 - (e) The Government of Ancient Persia (B.U. 1961, 70)
 7. Give the write answer.
 - (a) Cyrus; Dar-us—I was the greatest Persian king.
 - (b) Cyrus founded the persian state in 550/551/552 B.C.
 - (c) Gita/Quran/Bible/Avesta is the holy book of the Zoroastrians.
 - (d) The Persian developed/did not develop literature.
 - (e) The Persians were victorious/defeated at Marathon.
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Greek Civilization

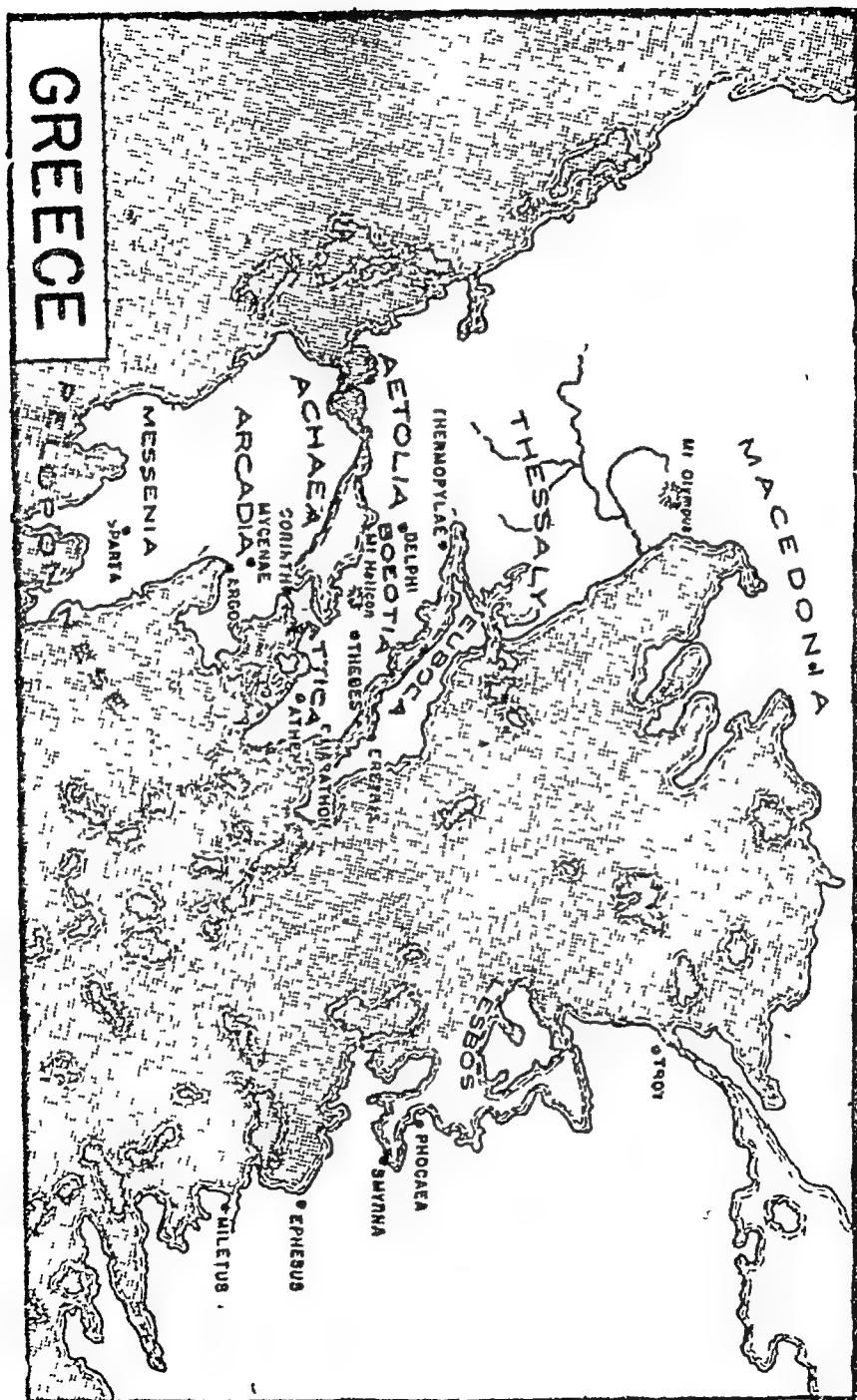
Greeks were poverty-stricken and backward people when civilization flourished in Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China. They borrowed a good deal from other civilizations and in the course of time built up a civilization of their own which surpassed them all. The Greeks were the first Europeans to attain civilization. In fact the foundation of the European Civilization was laid by the Greeks. How rightly **Pandit Nehru** in his world famous book '*Glimpses of World History*' had said ; "*Modern Europe, in some ways, is the child of Ancient Greeks*".

SECTION 1—HISTORY OF THE GREEK CIVILIZATION

1. Geographical Features and their Impact. Greece is a peninsula extending from the mainland of Europe into the Mediterranean Sea. It lies between the Aegean and Adriatic Seas. It is divided into many small regions which are separated from one-another by mountains, rivers and bays. The Sea penetrates deep in the coast line of Greece at many places, that is why Greece had many good ports and the Greeks developed sea-faring habits. Their ships sailed far and wide and gave a great impetus to commercial and maritime activities.

There were green meadows for the cattle on the higher mountain regions. The valley between the mountains were fertile. The climate of Greece was also congenial to health. The needs of life were easily fulfilled so the people had a lot of time to think over the higher things of life. The geographical features made Greece a "Cradle for European Civilization" and helped the Greeks to develop a rich civilization.

1. City-States. The geographical features and tribal character and organisation of the Greeks led to the evolution of the city-states. Greece was divided into small regions which were separated from one another by mountains and rivers. Each region was very particular about its own independence and had strong regional features. Gradually the scattered villages in each valley and plain grouped themselves round central cities and in this way formed many little city-states. Each had its own government, laws and



institutions. There were more than 150 City-states in Greece. The most important of these were Sparta, Athens, Thebes, Corinth and Argos.

Each city state was well-planned. There was a strong wall around the capital city to protect it from foreign attacks. All the city-states except Athens and Sparta were small in size and population. These city-states were patriotic but their patriotism was limited to their own states. Each took pride in its own freedom. They were often at war with one another. Sometimes they united together to fight a common enemy but this unity was temporary. These city-states were the home of individual liberty which led to direct democracy, the greatest gift of the Greeks to mankind.

3 Bonds of Unity. Though the Greeks lived in separate independent city states, yet there existed certain bonds of unity which led to cultural unity and held them together as one nation.

(1) *Common Blood and Language.* The Greeks belonged to the same race of Indo-Europeans. They called themselves Hellenes and considered themselves the descendants of the same ancestor known as Hellen. They spoke the same language.

(2) *Common Religion.* The Greeks worshipped the same gods and observed the same religious rites. They also believed in the same Oracles. Common religion, customs and manners bound them together as one nation.

(3) *Common Literature.* The Greek Epics, called Iliad and Odyssey, were regarded, as unique by all the Greeks. They were regarded as their common literature, which served as a bond of unity among the Greeks living in separate city-states.

(4) *Olympic Games.* These games were held every four years on the plains of Olympia since 776 B.C. Similar festivals were held at Delphi, Corinth and Nemea. They infused the feeling of unity among the Greeks. Only the persons of Hellenic blood could take part in these national games. They felt proud of belonging to one race. In fact the Olympic Games in many ways made the scattered Greeks, in spite of their many quarrels, feel that they were one people and gave them common ideas to strive for. They produced cultural unity among the Greeks, living in separate city-states.

4. Different Periods in Greek History :—

(1) *The Age of Kings* (1200 to 800 B.C.). During this period the Greek city-states were ruled by kings and monarchical form of government prevailed in Greece. There grew up a new class of people called nobles who, assisted the kings in their administration. They possessed land and had a large number of slaves to serve them.

During this period the Greeks established their colonies abroad because their population increased very rapidly. Whenever

these settlements were made, independent Greek City-states arose. They carried on trade with the mother-country. They introduced different coins which promoted trade and commerce. This economic prosperity led to the growth of the business class of people. Wherever the Greeks went they took their culture with them. So every Greek colony also became the centre of Greek Culture.

(2) *The Age of Nobles* (800-650 B.C.) As the kings became oppressive and the nobles more powerful, the latter took the reins of government in their own hands. During this period, few aristocratic families ruled in the city-states of Greece except Sparta. The Greeks established their colonies abroad in large number. But as the time passed on these nobles also became oppressive and blindly began to extend their estates and number of slaves. They were selfish and did not rule in the interest of the people. They led a lazy and luxurious life and the burden of taxes fell on the poor. Many Greeks migrated to Greek colonies in foreign countries. In short, the life of common man became very miserable and ceased to have any say in the affairs of the government.

(3) *The Age of Tyranny* (650 to 500 B.C.). Under these conditions, there arose much discontentment among the people. Making the best use of such a situation, the ambitious nobles overthrew the aristocratic form of government, championed the cause of the people and usurped the power unconstitutionally and illegally. This new class of rulers were called 'Tyrants'. Not all the *Tyrants* were cruel and oppressive rulers, as the term might suggest now. They were tyrants in the sense that they were not the legitimate rulers and had usurped power by force. These *Tyrants* were generally benevolent, looked after the nobles and the common people. They introduced many good reforms, promoted trade and industry and became the patrons of art, architecture, literature and science.

(4) *The Age of Democracy* (500 to 360 B.C.). With the passage of time these Tyrants began to behave like despots. They became ambitious, selfish, cruel and aggressive. They were in favour of establishing vast empires. Their designs were disliked by the freedom-loving Greeks. The people rose against these Tyrants, took the reins of government in their hands and organised their governments on democratic lines. Athens and Sparta were pioneers in this field. The City state of Athens played a significant role in the establishment of democracy. The other states soon followed suit. The people of Athens were peace loving but Sparta was a military state.

5. The Graeco-Persian Wars. The Greeks were very enterprising people. As their population increased, they established their colonies abroad. After the fall of Troy they set-up their settlements in Asia Minor. Asia Minor was later on captured by the Persians under the leadership of Cyrus. As a result of this conquest the Greek colonies also came under the sway of the Persians. The Persians proved hard masters and they greatly

curtailed the freedom of the Greeks. With the help of Athens the Greeks revolted against the despotic Persian rule. This revolt, however, was ruthlessly crushed by the Persians in 494 B.C. In order to punish Athens, the Persian ruler Darius sent a mighty force against Athens in 492 B.C. but this expedition failed miserably. But he built up another force and sent the same against Athens in 490 B.C. The people of Athens gave a tough fight to the Persians and inflicted a crushing defeat on them at the *Battle of Marathon*. The Persians left 6,400 dead on the battle-field while the remaining Persians fled in their boats. This defeat gave a severe blow to the power and prestige of the Persians. In the words of Greek historian *Herodotus* "*Until this time, the very name Medes (Persian) had been a terror to the Greeks to hear*".

Darius was succeeded by his son Xerxes in 486 B.C. He was determined to avenge the Persian defeat. Most of the Greek cities accepted the Persian domination but the Athenians and the Spartans refused to submit. These two states united their efforts against the mighty Persians and prepared themselves to meet the Persian attack. The Greeks defeated the Persians army very badly at the *Battle of Salamis* in 480 B.C. The Greeks also won great victories at the *Battles of Plataea and Mycale* in 479 B.C. These defeats of the Persians at the hands of the Greeks gave a crushing blow to their power and glory. Later on the Greek City-states of the Aegean Sea and Asia Minor set-up a Delian League under the leadership of Athens and defeated the Persians in 466 B.C. and drove them out of the Aegean Sea.

The Græco-Persian wars had *far reaching-consequences*. The Battles of Marathon, Salamis, Plataea, Mycale proved decisive and sealed the fate of the Persian empire for ever. They enabled the Greeks to *build up a rich culture and civilization*. Their victory against the Persians was the victory of democracy over despotism. It led to the *evolution of democratic form of government* which is the richest legacy of the Greeks to the modern world. These wars settled the fate of Europe once for all. Had the Persians won in these battles the *course of European History* might have been quite different. In that case it would have run its course according to the dictates of the Persians and hampered the development of the Greek genius.

SECTION 2. DEVELOPMENT AND CHIEF FEATURES OF GREEK DEMOCRACY

Athens was the most important City-state in Greece. It was the cultural centre of the Greeks and the birth place of democracy. During the period from 1,200 B.C. to 800 B.C., *monarchical form of government* existed in Athens. Codrus was the last king. After his death (800 B.C.) the powers passed into the hands of the nobles and

an aristocratic form of government was introduced¹ in Athens. It was ruled by an *Aristocratic Council* consisting of nine members, called 'Archons'. The 'First Archon' acted as head of the government officials and was the supreme judge in civil cases. The 'Second Archon' was the highest priest of the people. The 'Third Archon' acted as the chief of the armed forces. The remaining six Archons were the law makers. The Council of Elders, popularly known as the 'Council of Areopagus' was another important political institution of the Age of Nobles. Ex-archons were the members of this body. It controlled the administration as it had power to select the new archons. It decided criminal cases as well. There was also an assembly whose members were elected by the persons owning property but its powers were limited. Thus the real powers of government were enjoyed by the nobles who formed harsh laws and curtailed the freedom of the common people, e.g., the law authorised the creditor to sell the debtor and the members of his family. This gave birth to slavery in Athens. The nobles enforced laws in an arbitrary manner because the laws were not written. It created rift and hatred between the nobles and the common people.

(1) *The Code of Draco* (621 B.C.). The people of Athens were not satisfied with the rule of nobles and longed for reforms. Draco, one of the Archons of this period gave the Athenians a written code of laws in 621 B.C. The laws were very severe and harsh but the people now could know what the laws were. These laws, however, gave no relief to the common folk because they were very harsh and favoured the nobles. That is why it is said that the Draconian laws were written not in ink but in blood. They were disliked by the common people.

(2) *Solon's Reforms*. The Code of Draco could not pacify the people. There was a great dissatisfaction and discontentment among the people of Athens. At the same time it was threatened by the neighbouring states. There was a danger of civil war in Athens. Fortunately for Athens, Solon was selected as the Archon in 596 B.C. He introduced many social and constitutional reforms and improved the lot of the common people.

Law of debt was reformed. All existing debts and mortgages were declared null and void. All men who were made slaves because of debt were to be set free and in future no man was to be made a slave because of debt. Juries were created and all citizens could appeal to them against the decisions of the judges and seek justice. The land-holding of an individual was limited by law. Solon cancelled many old debts and the peasants now could take aid and loans from the government. Solon introduced silver coins to promote trade and commerce. It was compulsory for the parents to teach some trade to their children. If they failed to do so they could not expect their children to support them in the old age. The laws of the state were applicable to all alike.

Solon introduced many constitutional reforms as well. It was made compulsory for all the citizens to take part in political affairs.

of the state. The society was divided into four classes on the basis of income. The rich nobles formed the first class and held the highest offices of the state. The next two classes held the other offices of the state. The fourth class had the right to vote in the Assembly of the people or '*Ecclesia*' but they could not hold any office. The powers of the popular assembly known as '*Ecclesia*' were enlarged. It was empowered to pass laws and appoint government officials. In this way government became responsible to the popular assembly. The powers of the '*Council of Areopagus*' were reduced. Its main function, now, was to enforce laws. It enjoyed judicial powers and decided criminal cases. It had however, no power to formulate laws. The Council of Four Hundred (*Boule*) was constituted to prepare measures for deliberation in the General Assembly and to advise and help it in carrying out its business. Provision was made for the establishment of popular Law Courts. It was composed of the persons selected by the four classes of people by draw of lots.

Solon's social and political reforms occupy an important place in the history of Athens. His social reforms went a long way in making Athens an enlightened City-state of the Greeks. Soon it became centre of Greek culture and civilization. His constitutional reforms broke the monopoly of the nobles and safeguarded the freedom of the common people and established a more liberal government in Athens. His reforms enabled the common people to take part in the administration of the state. He laid the foundation of a democratic government in Athens. That is why Solon has been called the '*Father of Democracy in Greece*'.

(3) *Age of Tyranny in Athens* (650 to 511 B.C.). After the death of Solon there prevailed confusion in Athens and there was again a danger of civil war because the nobles wanted to regain their powers and privileges and the common people wanted to have more rights. Pisistratus, a young noble and nephew of Solon, championed the cause of the common folk and seized the power and became an absolute ruler. Such rulers were called '*Tyrants*' because they usurped power. But they ruled in the interest of the people. He introduced many reforms, encouraged trade and industry and promoted art and literature. The Epics of Homer were written during this period. After his death his sons Hipparchus and Hippias became more harsh and cruel. Another nobleman named Cleisthenes drove them out, liberated Athens from Tyrants in 511 B.C. and captured the power of government.

(4) *Reforms of Cleisthenes*. Cleisthenes introduced many reforms and strengthened democracy in Athens. He abolished the four old tribes formed on the basis of blood relationship and organised ten territorial tribes on the basis of locality. This reform created national outlook. The right of vote was granted to all the free citizens and the Assembly was thrown open to every male in Athens whether he owned property or not. In this way he established direct democracy in Athens. The Assembly or *Ecclesia* enjoyed vast powers and transacted all public business. It elected judges,

controlled income and expenditure of the state, decided the questions of war and peace, entered into treaties, passed laws etc. Every citizen was granted the right to address the assembly. It produced good orators in Athens. '*Boule*' or Council consisted of 500 members. Each tribe sent 50 representatives. They were selected by the whole body of citizens by draw of lots for one year. Military and foreign affairs were controlled by a board consisting of ten generals. It was called '*Strategi*'. Each tribe elected one general by draw of lots for one year. Election of the persons for holding public offices was also made by the draw of lots. This enabled a large number of citizens to have a chance to take part in the affairs of the government and get more political experience.

Cleisthenes introduced the '*Institution of Ostracism*' in Athens to safeguard democracy and to prevent an ambitious noble from establishing an autocratic rule. According to this system every voter wrote the name of a man whom they considered dangerous to the state on a piece of pottery and put it in an urn. If 6,000 votes were cast against a person he was sent into exile for 10 years. The piece of pottery was called '*Ostrakon*'. Thus this system came to be known as '*Ostracism*'. According to Prof. Davies "*This was a worthy instrument devised by Cleisthenes for the safe piloting of democracy*".

(5) *Democracy and the Age of Pericles* (500 B.C. - 429 B.C.) The Age of Pericles is the glorious period in the history of Athens and Greece. He was elected '*strategos*' (General) in 461 B.C. and was re-elected for 30 years continuously. During this period Athens witnessed all round development. He introduced various reforms and carried the democratic ideas to their logical extent. It was the flowering period of democracy in Athens. Powers of the '*Council of Areopagus*' were reduced. It enjoyed only judicial powers now. The rest of its powers were distributed between Council and the popular assembly or '*Ecclesia*'. Archons and the members of the council were elected by the whole body of the citizens by lots. It enabled the common people to hold high offices. He started the system of making payment to archons, members of council and jurors and public officials so that they might take keen interest in their work and perform their duties honestly and properly. In order that all the citizens might develop into good citizens and brave soldiers, Pericles introduced the system of compulsory education and military training.

Thus we see that the foundation of democracy was laid in Athens by Solon. It was enriched by Cleisthenes. Pericles completed it by introducing the system of election by draw of lots, making payments to public officials and making '*Ecclesia*' a sovereign body. Other City-states also followed suit and developed democratic form of governments on the lines of Athens.

(6) *Features of Greek Democracy* (1) The Greeks developed direct or pure democracy because every citizen was the member of the General Assembly. Such a system was possible in Greece because the City-states were very small in size. (2) The Greek

Democracy was highly limited. The women, paupers, slaves, foreigners etc were not given political rights. This hampered the progress of Greece. (3) The principles of *equality and liberty found no place in Greek democracy.* The Greeks advocated the rights of people, still they denied these rights to slaves and women. Slavery was a great blot on the Greek democracy. Women were regarded physically and intellectually inferior to men and could not take part in outdoor activities. (4) The *real power was in the hands of the nobles and aristocrats* because they were educated and trained while the poor could not play their role well because they were not educated. They were exploited by the clever orators. (5) The system of every year elections by draw of lots and rotation did not *allow the officials to gain experience.* As a result the real power remained in the hands of experienced nobles.

In spite of these drawbacks, it cannot be denied that the Greeks were the first to try this form of government and to prove that democracy is the best custodian of the rights of a man. The Greeks gave mankind a big boost in the climb towards freedom. The Greek democracy was the first experiment the world had seen in self-government.

(7) *Greek Democracy compared with Modern Democracy*
Modern idea of democracy differs from the democracy as it existed in Greek City-states. (1) *The Greek democracy was direct while modern democracy is indirect or representative.* All the free citizens in Greek City-states took part in the work of the General Assembly. It was possible in Greece because the City-states were small in size and population. But direct democracy is not possible in modern states which are large in size and population. All the citizens cannot take part in the affairs of government. Here the state is administered by the representatives of the people. (2) Secondly, Greek democracy was limited. Only the free citizens had the right to vote. Slaves and foreigners and women were denied this right. But slavery is repugnant to the spirit of a modern state. In a modern state every adult-man or woman—has the right to vote and take active part in the administration of the state.

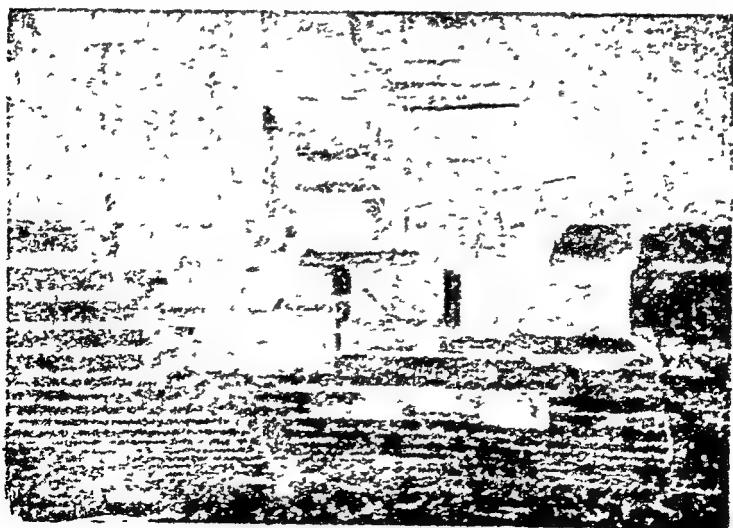
SECTION 3—THE AGE OF PERICLES AS THE GOLDEN AGE IN GREEK HISTORY

About the middle of fifth century B C Pericles became the leading man in Athens. He retained power from 461 to 428 B C. This period was the most brilliant period in the history of Greece because during this period Greece witnessed an all round development. That is why the Age of Pericles is known as the Golden Age in Greece. Pericles was a great statesman, general, orator, and far-sighted politician, patriot and true lover of humanity.

He belonged to a noble family of Athens. His family always championed the cause of democracy. His father was the Commander of the Athenian fleet and his mother was the grand daughter of Cleisthenes. He was fortunate to receive education from the famous teachers such as Damon, Pythocleides and Anaxagoras. Soon he acquired such qualities which make a successful politician and ruler. He was elected '*Strategos*' (military commander) in 461 B.C. and he occupied this position for about 30 years. Under his able leadership Greece made progress in all fields of life. Athens became the famous centre of art and learning. He patronized a great many architects, sculptors, painters, poets, dramatists, historians, scientists, philosophers and craftsmen. It has been rightly observed, "*Never before or since then has so much genius been gathered at one place within a short period*".

1 Encouragement to Democracy. Pericles was a staunch supporter of democracy and the rights of man. He perfected democratic government in Athens by enlarging the power of the General Assembly and making it a sovereign body of the state. He introduced the system of election by the draw of lots for the members of the councils. Juries were also enlarged and chosen by draw of lots. He started the system of making payments to the public officers, jurors etc., so that they may perform their duties devotedly and honestly. Even the poor now got a chance to take active part in the administration. The *Athenian democracy* flowered *during this period*. The Greeks established a broad based democracy and gave a permanent lesson in democracy to the world.

2. Development of Education and Culture Pericles made provision for compulsory education to enable the individuals



The Great Theatre of Athens

to develop their personality to the fullest extent and become better citizens. Athens became the cultural centre of Greece. Athens produced wonderful wealth of genius. Pericles called Athens the "School of Hellas". In the words of Prof S R. Sharma, "Athens was the cultural capital of Hellas. The greatest of the Greek poets orators, philosophers, historians, artists and scientists were either Athenians or admirers of Athens."

3 Reconstruction of Athens Athens was badly destroyed by the Persians from time to time. Pericles wanted that the new Athens which he was building should be the *most beautiful city in the world*. Pericles made many fine buildings in the city. Around the market place rose halls, temples and a great public library. The most beautiful group of buildings stood on the Acropolis. He built a theatre where the Athenians could see plays, cock-fights and enjoy other entertainments. The treasure of the Delian League was spent in beautifying Athens with beautiful buildings, theatres, marble statues etc. Athens, during the Age of Pericles became a thing of beauty. This age has rightly been called "*The Age of Marble*" because of the various marble buildings and statues made during this period.

4 Progress in the Field of Architecture and Sculpture. Great progress was made in the field of *architecture and sculpture*.



Statue of Athena

The most wonderful building on the Acropolis was the temple called Parthenon. It was built in honour of the Greek Goddess Athena. The beautiful statue of the Goddess made of ivory and gold stood inside the temple. This statue and many other bronze and marble statues and the carvings of the Parthenon were made by Pheidias, the greatest Athenian sculptor, and his pupils. The Temple of Victory at the Acropolis and the statue of God Zeus at the Olympia reveal the artistic skill of the Greek architects and sculptors.

5. Period of Great Historians, Scientists, Philosophers and Thinkers

Greece, particularly Athens, produced many *thinkers, writers, dramatists, historians, scientists, philosophers* etc who raised the glory of Greece to great heights. Pericles once said "*we love the beautiful, and we cultivate the mind*". Poems and dramas came from the pens of gifted writers and dramatists. Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides were the famous

writers of tragedies while Aristophanes was the most famous writer of comedies. Herodotus and Thucydides were the great historians of this age. There was a great progress in science also, particularly in mathematics, astronomy and medicine. Anaxagoras and Pythagoras were the renowned scientists and mathematicians of this age. Hippocrates led the way in medicine and was called the 'Father of Medicine'. This age produced the famous Greek thinkers such as Socrates and Plato. They brought not only wisdom but they also gave impetus to oratory and prose.

6. Encouragement to Trade and Commerce. Pericles organised the Delian League which gradually developed into an empire. Athenians established colonies abroad. Pericles encouraged trade and commerce by establishing commercial relations with many other countries. The port of Piræus became the famous centre of Mediterranean trade.

7. All-round Development. Keeping in view the above all round development, we can easily call this age as the golden Age in Greece. This period was the most glorious period in the history of Athens in particular and in the history of Greece in general. H. A. Davies rightly observes "*The Age of Pericles is the most brilliant in the history of Greece and indeed in the history of the world because of its tremendous achievements in art, literature and most things that make up the higher life of man*".

SECTION 4—THE SPARTAN STATE

The Spartans were Dorians whose ancestors had conquered the lovely valley of Lacedaemon, with the town of Sparta as their capital. They made slaves all the former peoples residing there and only pure Dorians could be citizens of Sparta.

1. Social Divisions The people of Sparta were divided into three classes (1) Spartans (2) Perioeci and (3) Helots. The Spartans were the descendants of the Dorians. Only they had the right of citizenship. They were the owners of the land which was cultivated for them by the lower classes. Military service was compulsory for them. The Perioeci were the original inhabitants of Sparta who were conquered by the Dorians. They had no right of citizenship. They cultivated land and carried on trade. They were required to pay tribute and render military service. Helots were the slaves of the Spartans. They were treated like animals and led a very miserable life.

2. Government of the Spartans. Unlike all other Greek cities, Sparta continued to have kings throughout her history. The constitution of Sparta was a mixture of monarchy and oligarchy. They adopted this constitution because they were surrounded by rival tribes and there was always a fear of a slave-revolt.

There were always *two kings* whose chief duties were to lead the armies in war and who at other times had to obey the same



Sparta and other Greek City-States

stern laws as all other Spartans had to do. This provision was made in the constitution to put a check on the power of the king and prevent him from becoming a despot.

The real power of the state was vested in the *Council of 30* members, known as '*The Gerusia*' (Senate). The two kings were also the members of this body. The remaining 28 members were over 60 years of age. They were elected by the General Assembly ('*Apella*') for life from amongst the nobles. It tried criminal cases and formulated legislation. It had the right to override the decision of the Assembly. This body dominated the political life of the state.

All the citizens of Sparta over 30 years of age, were the members of the *General Assembly* called '*Apella*'. It passed the measures proposed by the Council but it could not discuss them. The Council was however, not bound to accept its decisions. It determined the questions of peace and war and elected the members of the Council. This Assembly was of little importance as compared to the Council.

The members of the Assembly chose five officers from amongst themselves. They were called '*Ephors*' and formed the Executive Body of Sparta. They enjoyed unlimited powers. They kept a close eye on the activities of the kings. They could try the kings and the citizens. It was their duty to maintain discipline in the

state. In fact they controlled the government and were responsible to none. Thus we see the Government in Sparta was in reality an oligarchy.

3. Militarism in Sparta. The City-state of Sparta was surrounded by hostile tribes and there was a constant fear of revolts by the slaves. So they developed a spirit of militarism. The circumstances turned Sparta into a Military Camp. The men of Sparta lived like soldiers under severe discipline leaving farming and trading to slaves and members of the conquered races. They valued strength and fearlessness and lived under stern laws, ate simple food and had few comforts and luxuries. The children were examined soon after their birth. Infants who were weak or deformed and who seemed unlikely to become strong men and women were put to death. After the age of seven the boys were sent for military training in schools. They had to lead a very hard life. They were intentionally given such a food which was not enough to satisfy their hunger. They had to sleep out doors in winter without sufficient clothing. They were beaten cruelly once a year to test their vitality and power of enduring pains. They had to undergo various kinds of hardships and were kept under strict discipline. The Spartans were the boldest and the bravest soldiers in ancient times.

After the age of twenty, the Spartans were enlisted in the army. The soldiers could not marry before the age of thirty years. They served in the army upto the age of sixty and remained under the strict control of the state. They could not live a family life in their homes. They were allowed to visit their houses occasionally. They could retire at the age of sixty only.

The girls were also given hard physical training, drill and games. They were taught to suffer pain bravely. They could marry only after the age of twenty. The main aim of female education was to produce strong and sturdy women who could give birth to brave, and strong sons. Eminent historian **Hayes** observes in this connection, "*A man had no real home and rarely saw his wife, for he ate and slept in camps or barracks. Home, love, culture were all sacrificed for the sake of military efficiency. Even the girls were put through a course of athletic training, so that they might have physical strength to transmit to their children.*"

The citizens of Sparta were completely under the state control. They had only duties towards the state and no right against it. When a Spartan soldier went out to take part in a battle he was told to "*come back with his shield or on it*". To be defeated and to lose his shield was the greatest disgrace for a soldier. The city of Sparta had no walls. But they said proudly, "*Sparta's men are her walls and she need no other defences.*"

As a result of this militarism, Sparta became a military camp and the Spartans became a nation of soldiers. There is no doubt that this system produced strong men and efficient army but it

sacrificed home life and cultural development. Great stress was laid on physical and military training and as such mental training was ignored altogether. So Sparta could not produce intellectuals and genius. It has been rightly said, "*Under these strict laws the Spartans became great and brave soldiers, obedient to discipline and ready to die for their country, but they had not the love of liberty and beauty which the Athenians and other Greek peoples enjoyed.*" (J B Neilson). The contribution of Sparta in the cultural development is totally nil. Instead of doing any good Sparta did more harm to Greece and brought destruction and devastation only. It has been rightly said, "*Of all the invaluable progress made by the Greeks, for the benefit of the whole later world, nothing is due to Sparta.*"

4. **Difference between Athens and Sparta.** The concept of state was different in both these city-states. The Athenians regarded the state as a means to an end. Individuals were given full freedom to develop their personality. That is why Athens produced world famous poets, writers, philosophers, historians, orators, scientists and artists. On the other hand the Spartans regarded the state as an end in itself. The life of the individual there was regulated by the state according to its need from the cradle to the grave.

The Athenians laid great stress on the *all round development of her citizens*. While Spartans attached importance to the spirit of militarism only. So the Athenians became broad-minded while military training made Spartans very narrow-minded. The Spartans lacked the imagination and initiative of the Athenians because they were subjected to military training only.

The Athenians adopted *direct democracy* while *monarchy-cum-oligarchy* prevailed in Sparta.

In short, we can say that while Athens stood for light, truth and beauty, Sparta stood for militarism, totalitarianism and darkness. Sparta made little contribution to world civilization while Athens has left a rich legacy behind her.

SECTION 5—CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GREEK CIVILIZATION OR CONTRIBUTION OF GREECE TO THE WORLD CIVILIZATION

The ancient civilization of Greece was highly advanced. It is regarded as the basis of the modern civilization. It touched every aspect of human life and there is hardly any branch of knowledge which has not its origin in Greece. The famous English poet, Shelley has rightly remarked "*We are all Greeks, our laws, literature, our arts have their roots in Greece*". Pt. Nehru observed, "*Modern Europe is in some ways, the child of Ancient Greeks*". Their achievements are as follows :—

1. **The Greek Spirit of Life.** The Greeks had a humanistic and rational approach to life. They were the great lovers of the ideas of Truth, Goodness, Beauty and Freedom. According to **Prof. S R Sharma** '*Truth, Goodness and Beauty were the symbols of Greek idealism as Liberty, Equality and Fraternity have been that of modern France*'. Their spirit of life is their greatest contribution to the modern world.

2. **Democracy** The Greeks were realists rather than idealists. They tried various experiments in politics. They tried monarchy, oligarchy and tyranny and came to the conclusion that they cannot safeguard the rights of the individuals. Ultimately they established pure or direct democracy in their small city-states. All the citizens took active part in the administration of the state. The Greeks were the first to point out that democratic form of government is the best custodian of the rights of the citizens of a state. Democracy is the richest legacy of the Greeks. It had the seeds of modern responsible government hidden in it. **J B Neilson** observes "*The ancient Greeks gave to the world first lesson in democracy or government by the people.*" Another writer has said, '*Now a days we are accustomed in democratic countries to having parliaments and councils elected by the citizens. But we should remember that it were the ancient, Greeks who showed mankind the earliest example of this type of Government*'.

3. **Literature** The Greeks borrowed their alphabet from the Phoenicians. They added some new letters and adopted it to their needs. The Indians perfected the revised alphabet and they were accepted by the Hellenic world by the 4th century B.C. In language, as well as in art, the Greeks attained beauty, simplicity and clear and logical structure.

The Greeks developed a literature of very high standard. It was used to express the thoughts and aspirations of the people. **Prof Livingstone** observes, "*Simplicity, brevity, perfection of form, truth and beauty are the essential qualities of Greek literature.*"

(1) **Epic** The epic was one of the earliest forms of Greek literature. **Homer** was the first and the most famous epic poet of Greece. His epics *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are the outstanding examples of epic literature. The "*Iliad*" tells of the fight of Greek and Trojan warriors and the "*Odyssey*" about the adventures of heroes, after Troy had been conquered. In the words of **J B Neilson**, "*These beautiful poems are a mixture of true and imaginary stories and they give us a wonderful picture of the life and beliefs of the ancient Greeks*". **Hesiod** is another great epic poet. In his epic '*Works and Days*' he gives some good advice to the farmers.

(2) **Lyric Poetry.** The Greeks also developed lyric poetry. These poems were sung by the singers with the help of flute. The poems of Sappho, Anacreon, Pindar, Theocritus of Sicily, and the poetess Lesbos greatly enriched Greek literature.

(3) **Drama** The Greek dramas were closely connected with religion and public life. They depicted life and its problems in a

realistic manner *Aeschylus* was the greatest of the tragic dramatists. He has rightly been called '*The Father of Greek Tragedy*'. His subjects were mostly religious and his dramas carried some morals. *Sophocles* and *Euripides* were other two great writers of famous tragedies. *Euripides* was the spokesman of the poor and the oppressed. His drama "*The Trojan women*" reveals the sufferings of women during a war. *Aristophanes* was the greatest comedy-writer of Greece. Through his plays he criticized the government and exposed its weakness in a very amusing manner.

The plays were staged at the occasion of festivals to honour gods and to teach the people how to face the difficulties and realities of life. At the end of three-day festival prizes were given for the best plays. There was an open air theatre of *Dionysus* on the outskirts of Athens. It had seating capacity of 14,000 spectators. It shows that the dramas were very popular in Greece. The actors and the chorus singers were highly applauded by the spectators. The art developed because of state patronage.

(4) *History* *Herodotus* and *Thucydides* were the famous ancient Greek historians. They wrote about their times and travels. *Herodotus* has been called '*The Father of History*'. He wrote about the wars between the Greeks and the Persians. *Thucydides* gave an account of the conflict between Sparta and Athens.

The Greek epics, poems and prose works inspired the European writers and it resulted in the production of great literature in



Herodotus

Socrates

Thucydides

(Three great Greeks of the 5th century B.C.)

Europe. Paying glowing tribute to Greek literature **Prof. Livingstone** writes, '*Epic, lyric, drama, poetry, history, biography, Rhetorics and oratory, the essay, the sermon, Letter writing and literary criticism are all Greek by origin*'.

4. **Oratory.** As the Greeks adopted the democratic form of government, they developed the art of oratory because it is indispensable to democracy, because it is a government by discussion. *Demosthenes*, the famous Greek orator, was one of the greatest orators of the world. Through his powerful speeches he roused the spirit of freedom and democracy among the Athenians when they were suffering defeat at the hands of the Spartans in the Peloponnesian Wars. His speeches against the Philip of Macedonia are known as "*Phillipi*". They are the source of inspiration for the lovers of freedom and democracy all over the world. Solon and Pericles were the outstanding orators of their times. Their speeches greatly moved the people and held them spell-bound. The Sophists further developed this art and made it more popular.

5. **Education.** Great importance was attached to education in Greece. Elementary education was given in Elementary Schools supported by the government. After this the sons of rich people attended the lectures on philosophy, Mathematics etc in private schools. Special arrangements were made to give education in engineering, medicine, geography and astronomy. Greek philosophers played a great part in educating the youth in Greece.

The aim of education in Greece was not to earn ones' livelihood. It aimed at the all-round development of the personality of the citizens. Its aim was to develop the body and mind of the child and build a strong character. Physical training was given in gymnasium. Mental training was given through the study of poetry, history, drama, science etc. This system prevailed in all the city-states of Greece except Sparta.

The Public Schools in most of the countries of the world have adopted this system for the development of the personality of their children.

6. **Art and Architecture** The Greeks were great lovers of art and beauty. They had a keen aesthetic sense. They were imaginative and artistic people. Realism and humanism are the important features of the Greek art. Their art aimed at stirring the finer feelings, producing a love of beauty and raising the man above the ordinary level.

(1) **Architecture** The Greek architecture was the most perfect in style that the world has ever seen. They thought that beauty could best be achieved through simplicity and good proportions. All the Greek buildings had the same general plan, but there were three different types of columns. The Doric type had a thick shaft and a square capital. The Ionic type had a more slender shaft and a capital of two graceful scrolls. The Corinthian type had a slender shaft with a capital highly decorated with leaf-designs.

Pericles reconstructed the city of Athens which had been destroyed by the Persians. He decorated it with beautiful buildings. Around the market place rose halls, temples and a great library. The most beautiful buildings stood on the Acropolis. They were

constructed under the guidance of the master-architect, *Ictinus*. The most wonderful building on the Acropolis was a temple called *Parthenon*. In it we see the mixture of Doric and Ionic styles. It was simple in design but very beautiful to see. It was built of blocks of marble and its roofs were supported by rows of ornamented columns. Inside the sacred shrine lay the statue of goddess Athena made of ivory and gold. It was simple in design but very beautiful to look at. Simplicity, harmony, strength and good proportions are the main features of this building. The best example of a building in the Ionic style is the *Erechtheum*. It stands near the *Parthenon* and is a master-piece of Greek architecture.

(2) *Sculpture*. The Greeks excelled in sculpture also. *Myron*, *Phidias* and *Polycletus* were the outstanding sculptors of Greece.

Phidias was the most famous of the three. They made statues of gods in the beginning but later on human figures were also carved out of stone. *Myron* gave to the world his famous statue of Discus Thrower. The beautiful statue of goddess Athena made of ivory and the marble frieze showing a procession of Athenians are the masterpieces of *Phidias*. *Polycletus* was famous for his bronze statues of athletes. These statues speak highly of the artistic skill of the Greek sculptors.



A Discus Thrower in the
Olympic Games

(3) *Painting*. The early Greek painting was done mostly on vases, but later on this art was expressed on canvas, ivory wood and marble. *Phidias* was not only a sculptor but also a painter. Painting reached

its height in the 5th century B.C. *Polynotus* was the most famous painter of this period. He was expert in the art of painting vases and frescoes. *Apollodorus* painted on wood-blocks in stead of vases and walls. *Zeuxis* and *Parrabaxius* were other two famous masters of the art of painting. It is said that *Zeuxis* once painted grapes in such a natural style that they even attracted the living birds.

Greek paintings and sculptures were mainly religious in the beginning but later on they became realistic in nature ; the artists began to give human touch to them. Painting was used as means of expressing ideals and talents. The sculptors and the painters were

regarded as the most honoured men in the city-states. The Greeks are considered to be the pioneers in the art in painting and their art has greatly influenced the art of the modern world

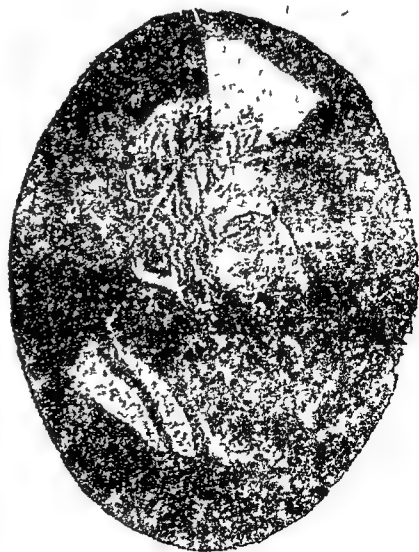
7. Science. The Greek philosophers encouraged the study of science. They were of the view that nothing happens in this world without a cause. The spirit of enquiry coupled with the scientific attitude of the Greeks helped them to make great advances in the realm of science.

They made useful discoveries in Mathematics. *Thales* borrowed much from the Egyptians but he invented geometrical phraseology of his own. *Pythagoras* made practical use of numbers and gave his famous geometrical theorem to the world. *Euclid* wrote a geometry which is still considered authoritative. The achievements of *Archimedes* in the field of mathematics have not been surpassed. He invented phraseology in Arithmetic.

Much progress was made in the sciences of *astronomy* and *geography*. They discovered that the movements of stars and planets are regulated by natural laws and not by gods. They discovered that the heavenly bodies were round in shape. This view was expressed first of all by *Pythagorus*. Later on they proved that the earth is round and not flat and that the moon moves round the earth. *Thales* predicted an eclipse of the sun in 585 B.C. *Eratosthenes* calculated the length of the earth and the equator and prepared the maps of Europe, Asia and Africa which were considered quite correct and remained in use till 1500 A.D.

Archimedes invented various principles of *Physics* and he has rightly been called the inventor of the "whole science of hydrostatics". He found out the principle of finding the Specific Gravity of various substances. It is known as *Archimedes' Principle* and it still forms basic principle of modern science. The principle of lever was also invented by him. It enables us to lift heavy loads. About the importance of this principle he once said, "Give me a strong lever and a place to stand, and I will lift the whole world."

The Greeks made wonderful progress in the science of medicine. *Hippocrates* was the greatest doctor, of the 5th century B.C. He was called the 'Father of Medicine'. He believed that diseases come from natural causes and not from the anger of gods or evil-spirit and that they should



Archimedes

be cured with the help of rules of health and hygiene, medicines and surgery rather than by magic and charms. He formulated an oath pledging doctors to be honest in their work. This oath is repeated by medical graduates even today. *Herophilus* was known as the '*Father of Anatomy*'. He dissected the human body and observed the functions of nerves and muscles. He proved that the heart pumps the blood and the brain affects the nerves and *vice versa*. He noted the pulse and invented an instrument to measure its rate.

There is no doubt that the Greeks made wonderful inventions and discoveries in the field of science. They had great thirst for scientific research and knowledge. They were the pioneers in the field of science and the modern world will remain indebted to them for their inventions.

8 Olympic Games. The games had an important place in the life of the Greeks and they believed in the maxim "*A sound mind in the sound body.*" Religious festivals were held in Greece in honour of their gods. The oldest and the most famous festival was the Olympic Games begun in 776 B.C. This festival used to take place once every four years on the plains of Olympia in western Greece.

The games lasted for five days and were held in late summer. All quarrels and fights between city-states were suspended during these days. It was really a national festival and was attended by thousands of visitors. The merchants brought their wares to sell at the fair, poets recited their poems and singers sang their songs. There were competitions in foot-races, long jump, running, wrestling, throwing the discus, boxing, horse and chariot races etc. The only prize given to an Olympic winner was a Wreath of Olive cut with a golden knife from a sacred olive tree. The poets read poems in their praise and often the sculptors made their statues. Visitors were feasted. But each winner was held in high honour and received rich rewards which he returned to his own country.

Similar festivals were held at Delphi and Corinth, etc. They had unifying influence and in spite of their many quarrels, the Greeks felt that they were one people and this realization gave them some common ideals to strive for.

The Greeks have thus left a rich legacy in the field of games. Olympic games are organised even today after every four years. Many new sports and games have now been added. Moreover athletes and players from all parts of the world now compete. According to **J.B. Neilson** "*These modern games are an effort to revive the Greek ideal of having peoples from many states meet in friendly contests rather than in war.*"

9. Religion. The Greeks worshipped many gods. They believed that these gods lived together like a family on Mount Olympus. They regarded the gods as glorified men and women. They were worldly and lustful and have their jealousies, hates and

love and like human families they often quarrelled among themselves. But they were immortal. The chief among them were *Zeus*, *Apollo* and *Athena*. *Zeus* was the lord-master of all gods, *Apollo* was the god of light while *Athena* was the goddess of wisdom.

The Greeks made many *temples* and *statues* of their Gods. The Parthenon Temple at Athens and the Statue of Athena were very famous and beautiful. The Greeks offered food and wine to the gods before each meal. There were public sacrifices on festival days. *Great festivals* were held in honour of gods. The Olympic Games were also a sort of religious activity. The religious ceremonies were performed by the priests in almost all the city-states. This uniformity in religion and religious practices served as a bond of unity among the Greeks.

10. Philosophy. The Greeks had a scientific attitude and always inquired about the 'what' and 'why' of things. In Greek language the philosophy means 'love of wisdom' or 'love of knowledge' so a philosopher is he who seeks after truth and wisdom. The Greeks had a democratic form of government and enjoyed freedom of thought. This atmosphere of freedom produced many great philosophers in Greece who gave new ideas to the world.

(1) *Socrates* (470—399 B C) Socrates was one of the famous Greek philosophers. He was the son of a stone-cutter. Though he looked ugly yet he was a genius. He served in the Greek army and later on became a member of the Council of Athens by dint of his hard work and wisdom. Once he visited the Temple of Apollo at Delphi and read the words "*Know Thyself*" on the walls of this temple. He was a seeker of truth and thought that knowledge can be acquired through reasoning. We must believe a thing if it appeals to reason. He wanted that every individual should develop the qualities of the truth, honesty, righteousness and virtue.



Socrates

He was not a teacher in the modern sense of the word. He talked to the youngmen of Athens in the streets, the market-place and the

meadows. He believed that he had a divine message from God to seek the truth and to teach the true wisdom to the people. He taught through discussion and the question-answer method. He asked such questions as—what is love? What is beauty? What is truth? He laid great stress on true education which according to him meant the education of the mind.

Socrates' rational appeal to life did not appeal to the authorities of Athens. They thought that Socrates was insulting their Gods and wanted to overthrow democracy and old traditions and customs. Ultimately they charged him with corrupting the youths of Athens and not believing in the traditional gods of Greece. He was condemned to death by drinking hemlock (Poison). His friends and pupils asked him to flee from Athens and save his life but he refused to do so. He said he had taught people how to live and now he was going to teach them how to die. Different writers have criticised the way by which Socrates was condemned to death. For instance H.A. Davies remarks "*His condemnation is the most discreditable thing that the democracy of Athens ever did, and if the object was to obliterate his teachings it failed utterly.*"

Socrates never put down his ideas in writing but they were preserved by his pupils. He has rightly been called "*the wisest, justest and best of the Greeks.*"

(2) *Plato* (427—347 B.C.). Plato was another renowned philosopher of Greece. He was the pupil of Socrates. He is regarded as

the "*Father of Philosophy*" and "*The Poet of Politics*". His favourite place for teaching was the "*Academy*". This was not a school building, but a beautiful pleasure ground outside the city walls, with groves, shady paths and fountains. Here he taught for fifty years. He taught mathematics, astronomy, logic and politics. He wrote in the form of dialogues '*The Republic*', '*The Statesman*' and the '*Laws*' are his most famous and valuable works.

Plato was against the Athenian democracy because it had put his master to death. In the '*Republic*' he pictured an ideal state in which the government is run by the highly educated



Plato

philosophers and in which there is perfect justice. In the '*Statesman*' he identified the ruler with the wise philosopher. In the '*Laws*' he gives description of a state where law is held supreme.

Plato's language was poetic and his sayings contained great truth. Some of his sayings are famous even today. He says "*Knowledge that is gained under compulsion is no true knowledge because it has no relation to mind*". Similary at another place he says "*That lie is the worst when the liar even does not know that he is telling a lie ; in such a case lie has become a part and parcel of such a man. Then there is no difference between the lie and the liar.*"

(3) *Aristotle* (384—322 B.C.) Aristotle, another famous philosopher of Greece, was the pupil of Plato and the teacher of Alexander the Great. He belonged to Macedonia but shifted to Athens and received education in the Academy of Plato. Later on he founded his famous school, the Lyceum in 335 B.C. He was fortunate enough to spread his teachings because he was patronized by Alexander, the Great.

Though he was the pupil of Plato yet he did not agree with the idealism of his master. He has rational and scientific attitude and believed in maintaining balance between the body and the mind. While Plato was a "*poet philosopher*", Aristotle was "*Philosopher scientist*". He was a versatile genius and wrote on Philosophy, Politics, Logic, Grammar, Ethics, Poetry and even scientific laws. He was considered authority on them and dominated the intellectual world for 2000 years. H.A. Davies observes, "*Probably no other thinker has exercised so much influence on the world as he.*"

He was a free thinker and the father of science. '*Politics*' is his most famous work. In it he had given a scientific classification of different types of Governments. He has discussed the causes of revolts and suggested measures to check them. He has pictured an ideal state in it. According to him in an ideal state there is a balance between law and liberty. It has been pointed out that no man after him until modern times studied and knew so much as he did. A writer has rightly remarked "*He towers head and shoulder above all other philosophers of the western world. Most of the great thinkers of succeeding ages have owed much to his teachings, none has been able to ignore it.*"

Conclusion. From the above discussion it is quite clear that Greeks had given much to the modern civilization. John Conard Appel has summed up the achievements and the legacies of the Greeks in the following words "*The Greeks wrote a new chapter in the world's history. They inherited much from the past. They built upon the past ; but were not bound by it. Their eyes were set on the world's history, a new age that dawned in Europe and in the Ancient Orient. Building on the past, the Greeks took great steps forward along many lines. The Greeks left to the world some of the best works in architecture, poetry, drama and sculpture that the world has ever produced. Their philosophy and science form the foundation*

upon which others have built. No other people have taken more important steps forward in culture than the ancient Greeks. When we think of the smallness of their population as compared to that of most great modern countries, the amount and quality of their artistic works and the brilliance of their thinkers seem all the more amazing."

SECTION 6—ALEXANDER, THE GREAT (336 TO 323 B.C.)

1. **Early Life and Rise to Power.** Alexander was the son of Philip, the ruler of Macedonia. He succeeded his father at the age of twenty. He showed fierce courage, a thirst for knowledge and desire to conquer. He was an able general and enlightened ruler. Aristotle was his teacher. His teachings had a great effect on him. Alexander admired Greek culture and posed as a Greek leader. Alexander grew to love the learning, art, music and poetry of ancient Greece. Homer was his favourite poet and Achilles, the Greek champion against Troy was his famous favourite hero. He thought he had a divine right to conquer and to rule the world.



Alexander

2. **Conquests.** Taking advantage of his early difficulties and young age, a few Greek city-states revolted against him. Thebes was the most famous among them.

Alexander subdued these revolts and levelled the city of Thebes to the ground. But he spared the house of poet Pindar. It shows his love for culture. He was not a tyrant but a cultured ruler. As a result, the whole of Greece acknowledged his supremacy and lordship. Then he began to prepare for the invasion of Persia. It is one of the daring military feats in the annals of history.

By his conquests he laid the foundation of a vast empire which included the countries of three continents—Europe, Africa and Asia. He invaded the Persian empire and inflicted a crushing defeat on Darius III, the ruler of Persia. As a result of this victory he conquered Phoenicia, Damascus, Gaza and Jerusalem in 332 B.C. Then he marched towards Egypt where the Egyptians were suffering under the cruel rule of Persia. He conquered Egypt. He proclaimed himself the son of God and built the city of Alexandria at the mouth

of the Nile. He defeated Darius III again in 331 B.C. at Gaugamela and captured Babylon, Susa, Ebatana and Persepolis. By 327 B.C. he annexed the whole of the Persian empire. Then he invaded the Indus Valley. Ambhi, King of Taxila joined him against Porus the king of Jhelum. Alexander defeated Porus and reached the bank of Beas. There, his soldiers refused to march further, so he was forced to return. He reached Babylon, fell sick and died there in 323 B.C. His Empire extended from Greece to the Indus Valley. But he could not realize his dream of the conquest of the whole world.

After his death, his empire was divided into three parts among his generals. Antignius ruled over the European part. Asiatic possessions fell to Seleucus while Ptolemy ruled over the Egyptian part.

3. **Estimate of Alexander.** Alexander was one of the most remarkable and greatest man in history. He was a great general and conqueror. He was never defeated. C.G. Starr rightly observes. *"During his years of campaigning, he covered over 22,000 miles and never lost a battle. He led his men with physical bravery and moral courage. He displayed a sound and quick judgement and carried his well-formed plans relentlessly"*. He laid the foundation of a large empire which extended from Greece to the Indus Valley.

Alexander possessed many human qualities. He loved his soldiers and always looked after their comfort. According to J.B. Neilson, *"In warfare he was the idol of his soldiers, leading them bravely, sharing their dangers and hardships and always taking care of their welfare"*. He had a great love for his friend Haphaestion and wept bitterly at his death. He treated kindly the family of Darius III when he fled away from the battle-field. He had great love for philosophy, science and arts.

Alexander is not famous only on account of his conquests. He did not conquer merely in order to rule as a cruel tyrant. He had the great ideal of uniting all the people of the world under one banner, one administration, one culture and under just and equal laws. He wanted that all the mankind should live like a united nation. Through his conquests, the learning and arts of Greece spread to East. He blended the Hellenic and Oriental cultures and created a new culture known as *Hellenistic culture*. He broke the barriers between the people of the East and West and brought them nearer to each other. He adopted the administrative system, customs and dress of the Persians. Many Persian nobles lived at his court. He married a Persian princess and encouraged inter-marriages. He adopted a tolerant policy towards the conquered people and recruited soldiers in his army from the conquered lands. He built many cities which became centres of Greek culture. He brought about the fusion of different cultures and created a composite culture. It has been rightly remarked that *"Alexander is known as the great Amalgamator because he tried to unite the civilizations of the East and the West"*. Regarding his achievements John Conrad Appel observes—

"While the empire of Alexander passed away, there were other results of his work that were more lasting. The most important of them was the mingling of Greek and Persian cultures. Wherever Alexander went he introduced Greek civilization. About seven cities were established along his route of travel, all having Greek colonies. Alexander and his soldiers adopted some Persian culture themselves. This mingling of the Greeks and the Orientals and of their cultures brought about a new era, the era of Hellenistic culture that lasted for about 300 years after the death of Alexander. Greek civilization has burst the narrow bounds of the city states and had been made a part of the culture of the entire civilized world."

Writers like H.G. Wells do not consider Alexander as a great-man. According to him Alexander had many drawbacks and weaknesses. He was not an able administrator like Ashoka because he did little for the welfare of his people. Sometimes, he lost his temper and behaved like a cruel and mad barbarian. He inflicted cruel punishments on the people of Thebes and Tyre and burnt and razed many cities to the ground. He did not spare even Clitus who had saved his life. He was vain and proud. Those who went to see him had to kneel down before him. He believed in superstitions and in astrology and made bloody and cruel sacrifices. He was addicted to drinking and lost his life because of excessive drinking in 323 B.C.

In spite of his drawbacks we cannot deny that Alexander was really great. He was a great general and statesman. Keeping in view his conquests and his efforts to popularize the Greek culture, and to fuse the Greek and Oriental cultures, it can be said that Alexander was really great.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—History of the Greek Civilization

(1) **The Land and People.** Greece lies between Aegean and Adriatic Seas, Four tribes of Indo-Europeans known as the Achaeans, the Dorians, the Aeolians and the Ionians; Conquests of original inhabitants, the Greeks were a mixture of Indo-Aryans and Non-Aryans

(2) **City-States.** Geographical features led to establishment of separate city-states, Cities well-planned; States small in size and population, Mutual warfare; Direct democracy.

(3) **Bond of Unity.** States cut off but have bonds of unity—common blood and language, common religion, common literature and Olympic Games

(4) **Different Ages of Greek History.** (1) Age of Kings (1200 B.C. to 800 B.C.) (2) Age of Nobles (800-650 B.C.) (3) The Age of Tyranny (650-500 B.C.) (4) Age of Democracy (500-360 B.C.)

(5) **The Graeco Persian Wars** Reasons, Defeat of the Persians at the Battles of Marathon, Salamis, Plataea and Mycale; Results of the victory of the Greeks.

SECTION 2 :—Development of Democracy of Athens

Monarchy, Aristocratic Council, Council of Areopagus, Assembly; The Code of Draco; Solon's Reforms; Age of Tyranny in Athens; Reform of Cleisthenes (560-511 B.C.); Democracy and Age of Pericles (500-429 B.C.); Features of Greek Democracy; Greek Democracy compared with Modern Democracy;

SECTION 3 :—The Age of Pericles as the Golden Age in Greek History (461-429 B.C.)

Pericles' Early Life; All round development; Flowering of democracy; Athens as the most beautiful city, Progress in architecture and sculpture; Progress in literature; Trade and commerce.

SECTION 4 :—The Spartan State

Social Divisions; the Government of the Spartans—two kings, Council, Assembly, Ephors; Militarism in Sparta; Difference between Athens and Sparta—difference in concept of state; All round development of citizens in Athens and spirit of militarism in Sparta, direct democracy and monarchy-cum-oligarchy.

SECTION 5 :—Chief Characteristics and Contribution of the Greek Civilization

(1) The Greek spirit of life (2) Democracy (3) Literature—Epic, Drama, History, Lyric, Poetry (4) Oratory (5) Education (6) Architecture and Arts—Architecture, Sculpture, Painting, (7) Science—Mathematics, Astronomy, Geography, Physics, Medicine, (8) Olympic Games (9) Religion—worship of Gods, temples, statues, festivals, oracles (10) Philosophy of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle.

SECTION 6 :—Alexander the Great (336-323 B.C.)

(1) His life and rise to Power (2) Conquests of Phoenicia, Damascus, Gaza, Jerusalem, Egypt, Babylon, Susa and of Indus Valley (3) Estimate—A great general and conqueror, human qualities, creation and spread of Hellenistic culture, his drawbacks.

University and other Important Questions

1. Give an account of the early history of the Greeks.
2. Describe the Athenian democracy and give its main features.
(All India Hr. Sec 1968)
3. Explain the Greek concept of democracy. In what respects does it differ from that of our own?
(B.U. 1956)
4. Explain the importance of democracy in ancient Greece?
(B.U. 1970, 71)
5. Describe briefly the struggle between the Greeks and the Persians.
6. Describe the life in Athens during the Age of Pericles. (B.U. 1958)
7. "The Age of Pericles is the most brilliant period in the history both of Athens and Greece". Discuss
(All India Hr. Sec. 67, 69; B.U. 1958, 60, 64; U.U. 1962, 64)

8. Describe the evolution of political life and democracy in the Greek city-states with special reference to Athens and Sparta (B.U. 1967)

9. Describe the rivalry between Athens and Sparta. What led to the defeat of the former?

10. Discuss the legacy or contribution of Greece to world history and culture. (All India Hr. Sec. 1966; B.U. 1961; U.U. 1961)

11. "In some ways, Modern Europe is the child of Ancient Greece". Discuss

12. Discuss the contribution of Greece civilization, with special reference to philosophy, politics, art and literature.

13. Form estimate of Solon as a social and political reformer, (U.U. 1964)

14. Bring out the importance of Alexander the Great's career and empire for the development and spread of Hellenistic culture. (B.U. 1962)

15. Estimate the importance of Alexander the Great in world history. (B.U. 1966)

16. Review the career and achievements of Alexander the Great. (All India Hr. Sec., 1968; U.U. 1961, 63)

17. Describe the achievements of Alexander the Great. Did he really deserve the title "Great".

18. Write in about 10 lines what you know about each of the following —

(i) Homer; (ii) Solon; (iii) Iliad and Odyssey;

(iv) Olympic Games; (B.U. 1950)

(v) Campaigns of Alexander the Great; (B.U. 1960, 65)

(vi) Plato; (B.U. 1962)

(vii) Socrates; (B.U. 1957)

(viii) Athens in the 5th century B.C.; (B.U. 1965)

(ix) Aristotle; (B.U. 1957, 62, 65)

(x) Greek Literature; (B.U. 1957, 67)

(xi) Greco-Persian Wars; (xii) Thucydides.

19. Name the following :—

(i) Three Philosophers of Ancient Greece.

(ii) Three Dramatists of Ancient Greece.

(iii) Three Law-givers of Ancient Greece.

(iv) Three Scientists of Ancient Greece

(v) Three Historians of Ancient Greece.

20. Make the correct Answer :

(i) The temple of God Apollo at Delphi/Athens/Troy is very famous.

(ii) The laws of Draco/Solon/Cleisthenes were very harsh.

(iii) The Greeks defeated the Persian ruler Darius I/Xerxes in the battle of Marathon/Salamis

(iv) The credit for making the statue of goddess Athena goes to Phidias/Euclid

(v) Archimedes was a famous dramatist/philosopher/scientist of ancient Greece

The Roman Civilization

SECTION 1—THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

Italy lies in the west of Greece. When the famous kings of Macedonia, Philip and his son Alexander, were laying the foundation of a vast empire, a small city, on the bank of river Tiber



in Italy, was progressing slowly. It was the city of Rome which later on developed into a vast empire and became the centre of Roman civilization. This civilization like the Greek civilization proved a source of inspiration for the Europeans and deeply influenced their life. The warm and sunny peninsula of Italy, 650 miles long and 100 miles wide, stretches like a boot into the middle of the Mediterranean. It has fertile plains and rich valleys. The climate of the country is ideal and makes it a desirable place to live in.

Various races of people came to occupy Italy in ancient times, one after the other. The Swiss lake-dwellers, the Indo-Europeans, the Etruscans and some elements of the Greek and Phoenician settlers all went to make the Roman people and the Roman culture. Dr. J.E. Swain rightly remarks "*Roman civilization and the Roman people were a mixture of all these cultural and racial elements*".

Rise of the Roman Republic (509 to 27 B.C.). Nothing is known about the origin of Rome as the centre of Roman culture. The Romans say that it was founded by the two brothers Romulus and Remus, but it is a mythical story. Perhaps it grew from a small trading post that the Latins founded on the Tiber. The Latins were politically weak so in about 753 B.C. a sea-faring people known as Etruscans conquered Rome and laid the foundation of a kingdom. These kings did much to make the city strong by building a wall round it. But the Romans had to suffer much at the hands of these cruel and harsh Etruscan kings. At last (in about 509 B.C.) the Romans rebelled against the oppressive king, "*Tarquin the Proud*", and drove him out of Rome with the help of the nobles.

These nobles established a Republic in Rome which flourished for quite a long period 509-27 (B.C.). During this long period the Romans had to see so many ups and downs. Sometimes the very city of Rome was plundered and burnt by such barbarian people as the Samnites, the Gauls and even the Etruscans but in 290 B.C. the Romans defeated the combined forces of these people and by 273 B.C. they made themselves supreme in the whole peninsula of Italy. They won all round conquests in Spain, France, Africa, Carthage, Egypt and Greece etc. Various generals and administrators like Pompey, Crasius, Julius Caesar, Antony and Octavian (or Augustus) greatly added to the name of Rome.

Chief Features of the Republic. The Republic, which flourished in Rome from 509 to 27 B.C. had the following chief features or characteristics :—

(1) *Political Organization.* In the Republic the officials were elected. The Romans chose two '*Consuls*' each year to govern them. They had the power to execute laws and to lead the army. These Consuls acted as a check on each other and could veto the acts of the other. To elect and guide the Consuls there was a '*Senate*' consisting of the heads of the patrician (or noble) families. It was a permanent body and the Senators were chosen for life. The Senate approved laws

and treaties and selected candidates for the office of Consuls. It advised on matters of peace and war. It controlled public funds and foreign policy. At the times of national crisis and in an emergency the Senate elected an honest person as a 'Dictator'. He held office only for six months and after the completion of a particular task he resigned his post. He, however, remained the sole ruler and enjoyed unlimited powers during this period. Later on, as the empire grew, certain other officials like the 'Quaestors' and 'Praetors' were appointed to help the Consuls in the financial and judicial matters respectively.

(2) *Struggle between the Patricians and the Plebians.* There were two classes of citizens in Rome—patricians and Plebians (Plebs). The Patricians held all the offices. The Plebs were excluded from holding any office and they enjoyed little political power. The Patricians were wealthy traders, noblemen and had large estates. The plebs were farmers and workers in the city. They were oppressed by the unjust 'laws'. They could be thrown into private prisons and sold as slaves if they did not pay the debts. They did not enjoy any social status.



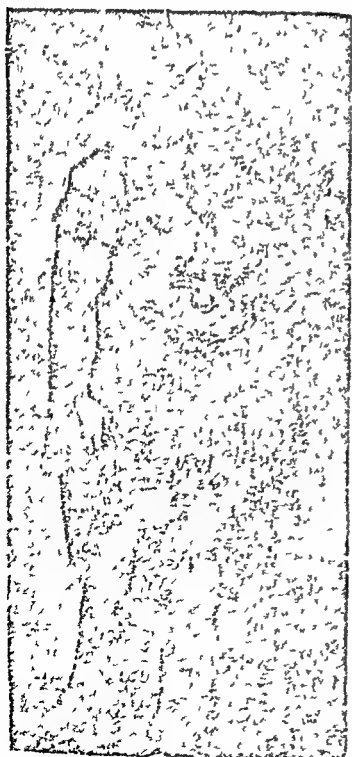
A Patrician and a Plebian

In 494 B.C. they, however, refused to take part in annual campaigns and threatened to leave Rome. The Patricians needed them in their army and so they were forced to grant them certain rights. They were allowed to elect two new officials known as the "*Tribunes of the People*". They presided over the popular Assembly and could veto any law and stop any punishment which was unjust to the Plebs. They gained another victory in 450 B.C. when the laws of Rome were written on tablets and hung in the market place. They were known as Twelve Tablets. Now all could see and read them. The Roman school boys had to learn them by heart. These laws

removed great social inequality and injustice and now all were equal before law. In 445 B.C. they were allowed to marry Patricians. It broke social barriers. By 443 B.C. they got the right to hold public offices. Licinian laws of 367 B.C. enabled them to have share in public lands. In 313 B.C. a law was passed which abolished the right of the creditor to seize the debtor. In 304 B.C. they were allowed to enter the Senate. Early in the 3rd century B.C. the Assembly was granted the power to make laws. According to John Conard, "*The distinction between patrician and plebs were forgotten, the old aristocratic republic gave way to democratic republic.*" By the time Rome had conquered Italy, there was a kind of democracy in Rome.

(3) *Difference between the Roman and Greek Democracy.* There was a great difference between the Roman form of democracy and that of Greece or Athens. In Athens there was a direct or pure democracy in which all the citizens took part in the making of laws and in the affairs of government. On the other hand there was representative form of democracy in Rome. Here the laws were made by the representatives of the people. They carried on the administration. The people did not participate directly in the affairs of the government. This form of democracy is suited to countries with large populations. Modern states have adopted this form of democracy.

(4) *Foundation of the Empire.* The foundation of the Roman empire was laid during the period of Republic. After conquering the whole of Italy by the 3rd century B.C. The Romans tried to conquer lands in all the directions. Between 264 to 146 B.C. they had to fight three bloody wars, known in history as the 'Punic Wars' against Carthage, a great sea-power in the western Mediterranean, and ultimately they were able in destroying that power. After that they conquered a large number of territories including Macedonia, Greece, Syria, Palestine, Spain, Gaul and even Britain. But it goes to the credit of Rome that they administered their colonies quite well. According to George Guest—"*The rule of Rome, for the greater part of the period, was the best the world had ever seen.*"



A Roman Soldier

(5) *The Roman Military System.* Every Roman citizen was a soldier in the national force. In early times the citizens supplied their own military equipment and supported themselves during a campaign. During the siege of Veii, an Etruscan city, in 395 B.C.

the soldiers were paid out of public treasury, and this custom afterwards became prevalent. The unit of the Roman army was the famous Legion. It consisted of over 6,000 men, mostly infantry supported by cavalry, artillery and engineers. The soldiers were trained by a severe course of exercises, including running and swimming. During a campaign in the enemy's country, a fortified camp was built every night.

(6) *Increase in the Wealth of the Richer Classes* With the increase in the number of new colonies, the richness of the Romans, particularly of the richer classes increased tremendously. This wealth came from the conquered provinces. **Evan George Guest** writes, "*Although the Romans sought to civilize they did not hesitate to plunder. Vast wealth was conveyed to Rome from the conquered provinces*" According to **H. A. Davies**, "*The richer classes were the only ones who benefitted from the plunder of the provinces*"

Fall of the Republic After flourishing about five centuries (509 to 27 B C) the Republic in Rome fell and slowly and slowly an empire was established there with emperor as the head of the Roman Empire. There were many causes responsible for the downfall of the Roman Republic ;—

(1) *The struggle between the Plebians and the Patricians* not only weakened the Romans but also sapped the very resources of the Roman Republic.

(2) *The expansion of the empire* also contributed to the downfall of the Roman Republic. The empire was wrought through the help of armies and the same armies posed a serious threat to the democratic institutions and the Republic itself.

(3) *The continuous wars* that Rome had to fight both for its preservation and its expansion greatly weakened and shattered the economic condition of the country.

(4) *The money* that flowed into Rome from the conquered provinces greatly demoralised the Roman nobility. They became ease-loving and fond of pleasure. But such a state of affairs led them to their decay and downfall. One poet has rightly said—

*"Where wealth accumulates, men decay,
And disloyalty on the empire doth prey"*

(5) *The condition of the farmers* deteriorated day by day under the Republic. They undertook military service in foreign lands but in their absence their holdings (or lands) were absorbed in the large effects of wealthy land-owners. Secondly, when, with the expansion of the Roman empire, corn ships began to arrive at Rome, the small farmers failed to sell their produce at reasonable rates and were forced to undersell it. Consequently the condition of the farmers became lamentable in the extreme.

(6) *The Roman nobles* began to keep slaves in large numbers. It is said that with the passage of time their number outnumbered

even the freemen. But it was not always safe to keep slaves in such a large number. Whenever they found their masters quarrelling among themselves they also raised a standard of revolt and posed a great problem for the Romans.

(7) The *rise of militarism* also posed a great danger to the Republic. When Roman generals like Pompey, Crassius and Caesar, and later on Octavius, Antony and Lepidus set the whole Roman republic to ransom. The Senate was too weak to check and control them.

(8) The *rise of Octavius*, a nephew of Julius Caesar, sounded the death-knell of the Roman Republic. When in about 27 B.C. he made himself the master of the Roman world. The Senate itself gave him the title of 'Imperator' or 'Emperor.' Thus the Roman Republic came to an end in 27 B.C.

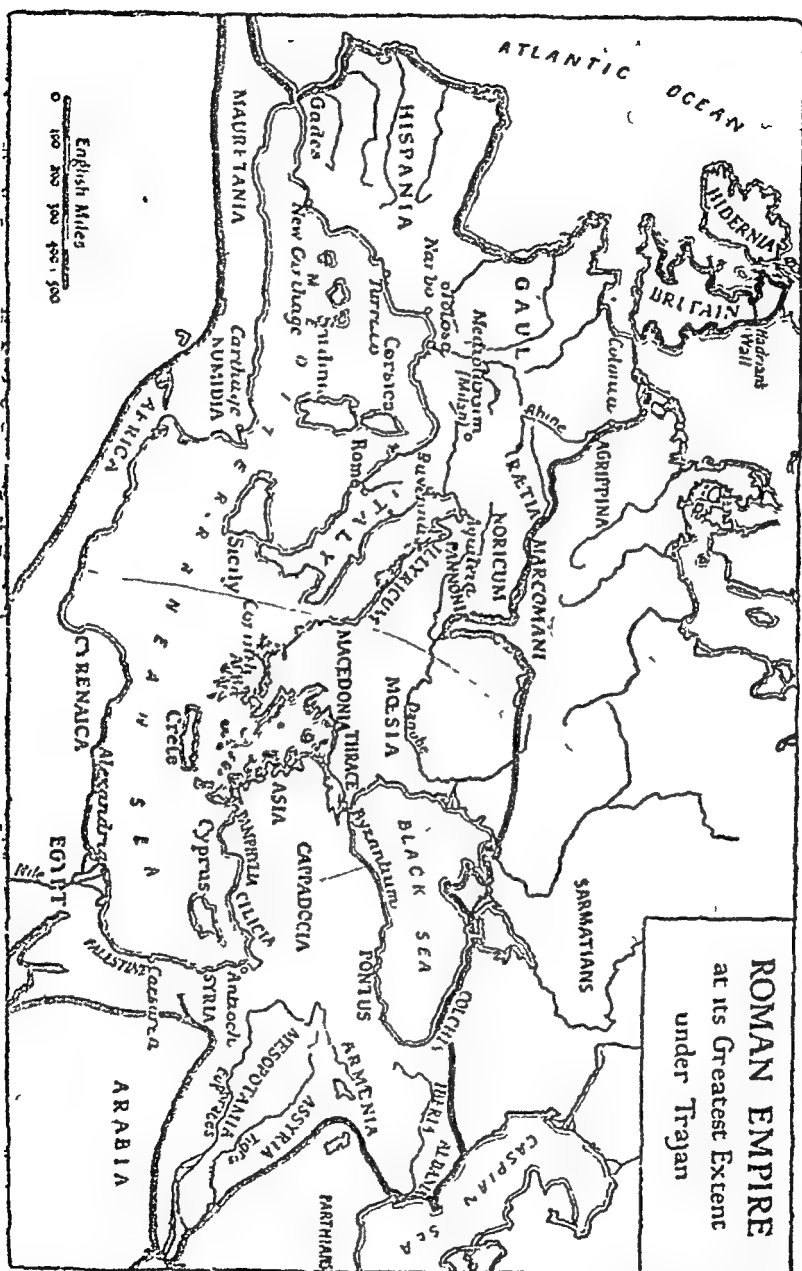
SECTION 2—RISE AND FALL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

Rise of the Roman Empire. About the middle of the eighth century B.C. Rome was only a small village on the mouth of the river Tiber. Warrior races like the Gauls and the Etruscans tried to put many hurdles in her way but she continued to march on path of progress. By 279 B.C. she brought all of Italy under her control and she marched on the path of empire-building. In the beginning she had to fight three bloody wars, known as the '*Punic Wars*' with Carthage, in the western Mediterranean, between 264 to 164 B.C. In 202 B.C. they however won a decisive battle at Zama where they humbled their general Hannibal and occupied a greater part of Carthage. In about 146 B.C. they completely destroyed Carthage when she tried to capture power once again.

For more than three hundred years, after the destruction of Carthage, Rome continued to expand. A writer puts the Roman expansion in this way. "*Macedonia and all that was left of Greece came under her sway. Through Asia Minor and Syria into Palestine her armies went. Then after a struggle lasting thirty years, Egypt became a Roman province (30 B.C.). North-ward, too the Roman legions pushed through Gaul (France) and Spain and finally into Britain*". Persons like Julius Caesar and Augustus, about whom we shall read in detail in the next Sections, played an important role in founding the Roman empire on sound footings. By the 1st century B.C. the Roman Empire had thus greatly expanded. It extended from the Tigris-Euphrates in the east to Spain in the west and from the African desert in the south to Britain in the north.

2 Causes of the Rise of Roman Empire. Now the question arises as to how Rome established such a vast empire. According to V.A. Renouf the following causes led to the rise and growth of the Roman Empire :—

(1) *Favourable Geographical Position.* The Geographical position of Rome was an essential factor in the growth of her power



(i) The city limits could expand freely in all the directions to make room for the growing population (ii) The Tiber afforded direct connection with the sea, where various commercial ports, were already springing up. (iii) Rome occupied central position on the Italian peninsula When she was threatened by enemies from several

sides, she always had the advantage of inner lines. Her armies could strike in all the directions from the central strong-hold, and so prevent the enemies from combining. (iv) In contrast to Greece, which is split up by mountains into isolated districts, Italy forms a compact country.

(2) *Roman Armies and Laws.* Rome rose supreme over the western world, because her armies and her laws were better than those of many rivals who tried to crush her.

(3) *Roman Character.* (i) *Love of Liberty* was strong in Roman hearts. It was also coupled with the spirit of obedience, of discipline, and of reverence for authority. Among the Roman citizens there was no trace of fickleness which ruined the Athenians. (ii) Like the Chinese, the Romans laid great stress on *filiul piety*, on strict observance of ceremonies, and on the maintenance of old traditions. It has been mentioned that ancestor worship was generally practised. The father had absolute authority over his whole family. (iii) The finest Roman virtue was a noble *sense of duty* especially in public affairs. The Romans were always anxious that all business, public or private, should be done in due form and according to law. Roman history tells many stories of that spirit of self sacrifice by which the Japanese now are making their nation great. (iv) *Bravery* was the natural quality of the Romans. Personal bravery was taken for granted in every self respecting Roman. The word '*virtue*' which now means any good quality, meant bravery in Rome. (v) In their dealings with each other, the Romans were *truthful and honest*. But they hated the foreigners and were apt to be cruel and unjust to conquered peoples.

3. **The Decline of Roman Empire** 14 A.D.-476 A.D. "*It is important to keep in mind*" as **George Guest** puts it "*that the passing of the Roman empire was not a sudden occurrence. For many years before the end came there had been definite signs of decay*" Augustus (27 B.C. to 14 A.D.), did a lot for the Roman empire. He however, kept the outward form of the republic but his successors became emperors in theory and in practice and by and by brought about the decline of the empire.

The four successors of Augustus belonged to the family of Julius Caesar. So they are known as *Julius Emperors* and they ruled from 14 to 68 A.D. *Tiberius* (14-37 A.D.) succeeded Augustus. He abolished the Roman Assembly. *Claudius* (41-54 A.D.) established his sway over Britain. *Nero* (54-68) was bold but vain and cruel. He wasted public money in leading a luxurious life. He killed his mother, queen and tutor Seneca. A great fire broke out in Rome during his reign and destroyed a large part of the city. He held the Christians responsible for it and persecuted them in large numbers.

After Nero, four emperors ruled from 69 to 96 A.D. They were proclaimed emperors by the Legions and were known as the *Flavian Emperors*. *Titus* (79-81 A.D.) was the most famous. He crushed

the revolt of the Jews. He completed the amphitheatre of Rome. He was kind and called "*The Delight of Mankind*"

After these emperors, "*the Five Good Emprors,*" ruled in Rome from 96 to 180 A.D. *Nerva* was very kind and ruled for 2 years. His adopted son *Trajan* (98 to 117 A.D.) expanded the empire but he followed an offensive policy. His successor *Hadrian* (117-138 A.D.) was an able administrator and lover of peace. *Antoninus Pius* (138-161 A.D.) is famous for the happiness of the people. *Marcus Aurelius* (161-180 A.D.) was a philosopher king and believed in the Philosophy of Stoic. He did much for the welfare of his subjects but a deadly plague broke out during his reign. He persecuted the Christians ruthlessly. He built a wall round the city to save it from the Germanic barbarian tribes. The next century saw a period of decline until *Aurelian* came to the throne in 270 A.D. He restored law and order. *Diocletian* (284-305 A.D.) was the next noteworthy ruler. He organized a highly centralized government. He divided his empire into 4 sections. Each was ruled by a person responsible to him. He behaved like an oriental despot. This arrangement led to the split of the empire later on.

After the death of *Diocletian* there was a civil war among the chiefs of the four sections of the empire for supremacy. At last *Constantine* was successful and he became the emperor. He carried out the system of government as was set-up by *Diocletian*. He shifted his capital to Byzantium and renamed it as Constantinople. As a result of the change of capital Rome became a provincial town. As the time passed, the Empire was divided into parts—the western Empire with its capital at Byzantium (Constantinople) and the Eastern Empire with its capital at Rome. *Constantine* made Christianity a state religion.

After the death of *Constantine* there prevailed a great confusion and anarchy in Rome. There started a struggle for the kingship of Rome. At last *Theodosius* succeeded, united the two parts of the empire and ruled over it from 378 to 395. Before his death he again divided the empire. He gave the Eastern part to his son *Arcadius* and the western part to his second son *Honorius*.

The Germans continued their attacks on the western Empire. Their chief *Odoacer* deposed the last puppet Roman Emperor *Romulus Augustulus* in 476 A.D. and became the ruler of Italy. The Eastern Empire lasted upto 1453 A.D. when Turks captured Constantinople.

4. **Causes of the Decline of Roman Empire.** The Empire established by Augustus continued to flourish for about four hundred and fifty years (27 B.C. to 476 A.D.) But the following causes led to its decline afterwards :—

(1) *Weak and Incompetent Rulers.* The Roman Emperors after 110 A.D. proved weak and incompetent. They led a luxurious life and paid no attention to the welfare of the people. At the same time the emperors behaved like oriental despots. Their government

was very harsh, cruel and autocratic. The people did not enjoy freedom. Hence they lost the sympathy and support of the people.

(2) *Wealth and Luxury.* Foreign conquests and plunder of Carthage poured much wealth in Rome. As a result, the ruling class and the common people became ease-loving. They lived in luxury and consequently they became idle and coward. They lacked the courage to defend their country. No one could save such people from decline.

(3) *Vast extent of the Empire.* The vast extent of the Roman empire also led to its downfall. It was difficult, if not impossible, to control such a large empire due to scanty means of communications. Able rulers like Augustus and Aurelius could dominate over this vast empire but weak and incompetent rulers failed to hold their sway over it and consequently the empire collapsed.

(4) *Change of the Capital.* Roman Emperor Constantine shifted his capital from Rome to Byzantium, situated on the coast of Black Sea and named it as Constantinople in 330 A.D. The change of capital proved suicidal for the Empire because it now became difficult to save Rome from the invasions of the barbarian tribes.

(5) *Division of the Empire.* After 395 A.D. the Roman Empire split up into two parts. Rome and Constantinople were now ruled by two different emperors. With the passage of time they became rivals of each other. When the barbarian tribes attacked Rome in 476, the ruler of Eastern Empire or Constantinople did nothing to help Rome. This division of empire proved harmful for the strength, means and interests of the empire and ultimately led to its decay.

(6) *Weakness of the Army.* The vast empire required a large and powerful army to defend its frontiers. In the beginning the Romans enlisted themselves in the army in large number. They were famous for their bravery. Later on they became ease-loving and luxurious. They lost their military vigour and shirked to join the army as soldiers. As a result the barbarians from the borders of the empire were recruited in the army. Such troops were a source of weakness rather than strength. They joined the foreign invaders and created chaos and confusion in the empire.

(7) *Heavy and Oppressive Taxes.* A large sum of money was required to maintain large armies and magnificent courts. Money was squandered recklessly on the comforts and luxuries of the ruling class. So heavy taxes had to be imposed on the common people which made the rule very unpopular and ultimately it lost the sympathies of the people.

(8) *The Slave System.* Increase in the number of slaves is not useful for any state. The vast extent of the empire increased the number of slaves which in turn brought about degradation and demoralization in the society. The slaves made the Romans ease-loving and idle. Gradually they lost the strength to defend their home and hearth. The slaves on their part had no love for Rome and consequently they hastened the fall of the Roman Empire.

(9) *Unproductive Economy.* The Romans, with the passage of time, began to pay their attention more to their pleasures and luxuries than to cultivation of land which required both hard labour and perseverance. As a result the agricultural production decreased. The wealth secured from the conquered territories was also wasted on luxuries and pleasures. It was not put to any productive use. This unproductive economy proved disastrous. **Prof S R Sharma** observes, "*The failure to develop production, involved in the long run, the ruin of the empire, for Roman civilization was not a light or an easy burden*"

(10) *The Absence of the Law of Succession.* There was no law of succession in Rome. After the death of one emperor, there was chaos, anarchy and disorder in the empire. There was a struggle between various candidates and a civil war broke out between the ambitious generals who were backed by their armies. This method of electing an emperor through civil war was totally faulty. It weakened the empire and hastened its decline.

(11) *Christianity.* Christianity was another cause of the fall of Roman Empire. It weakened the empire from within. There was a continuous struggle between the emperors and the followers of the Christianity because they refused to worship the emperor like gods. Christianity also preached non-violence and peace hence it weakened the military strength of Rome.

(13) *Barbarian Invasion.* In the end various barbarian tribes such as Goths, Vandals, Franks and Huns invaded the empire and proved the immediate cause of its collapse.

SECTION 3—THE PUNIC WARS, 264-146 B C

After conquering the Greek cities in Italy, the Romans had to face a jealous and powerful rival in the Mediterranean Sea. This was the city of Carthage, on the north coast of Africa. The wars that took place between Rome and Carthage known as the Punic Wars 'Punic' is derived from the Latin word '*Poenus*' which denotes Carthaginian.

1 **Causes of the Punic Wars.** Various causes led to Punic Wars. (1) Rome and Carthage were *two rival powers*. Both were expanding and needed the command of the Mediterranean Sea for their growth. (2) There was *jealousy* between powerful and wealthy Carthage and the poor but ambitious city of Rome. The Carthaginian navy controlled the sea, from Sicily to Strait of Gibraltar. (3) *Carthage refused other cities the right to trade* in the ports she controlled. When Rome threatened her trade on the sea, they became alarmed. (4) *Rome did not feel secure* on her shores and was determined to oust Carthage from the Mediterranean Sea. (5) *Political and commercial rivalry* produced ill-feeling while their difference in race, language and religion changed it into hatred and as such war became inevitable. (6) In 264 B C the Romans occupied *the city of Messina* which was

under the possession of Carthage. It proved the immediate cause of the war.

2. The Punic Wars (264—146 B.C.)

(1) *The First Punic War* (264—241 B.C.) The Punic Wars started in 264 B.C. when the Romans occupied the city of Messina. In the beginning the Romans were defeated in many encounters by the Carthaginians. In a few years the tide turned and the Romans inflicted humiliating defeats on the Carthaginians under the command of general Carulus and won the islands of the Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica. The Carthaginians had to sign a peace treaty with Rome. They paid war indemnity and gave up all claims to Sicily.

(2) *The Second Punic War* (219—202 B.C.) Both the nations wanted to dominate the Mediterranean Sea and so they prepared



Hannibal

themselves for the final blow. It was fought for the possession of Spain in 219 B.C. There arose the famous Carthaginian leader, Hannibal, who was one of the greatest generals of the World. He daringly marched an army of 60,000 men through Spain and Gaul, across the Alps, into Italy. After great sufferings and loss of men in the terrible climb he established a base in the northern part of Italy. Again and again he defeated the Roman armies. He stayed in Italy for 15 years without losing a single battle. But he could not capture Rome itself. The Roman general Fabius saved Rome. Finally the Romans sent an army under general Scipio into Carthage's own territory. As a result

Hannibal had to return to his country after 15 years of brilliant but fruitless campaigning in Italy.

The two armies met at Zama near Carthage in 202 B.C. Scipio defeated Hannibal and won a final victory. Carthage was forced to sign a humiliating treaty. Hannibal had to flee from Carthage. He tried to muster strength and face the enemy again but he failed. In the end he took poison and died to save himself from falling into the hands of the Romans.

The Romans, now, declared war against the King of Macedonia. He was defeated and he accepted the supremacy of Rome. The Romans conquered Greece and Asia Minor also. Egypt acknowledged the lordship of Rome in 168 B.C. without fighting.

(3) *The Third Punic War* (149—146 B C) Rome always feared that Carthage might rise against her again. Cato the Roman Commissioner of Carthage, wanted to wipe it out completely. He raised the slogan, "*Carthage must be destroyed*". He instigated the Numidians to attack Carthage and when Carthage acted in self defence, he charged her with violating the terms of the treaty and attacked Carthage. Carthage had to give in after 3 years. Romans burnt Carthage to the ground. Out of the population of 5,00,000 about 50,000 survived. No trace of Carthage was left in 146 B C. Rome was now undisputed mistress of the Mediterranean world.

3. **Effects of Punic Wars.** These wars had great effect on the political and social conditions of the country - *Imperialistic expansion of Rome proved disastrous for democracy* as well as for the people. Her municipal government was not fit for the task of ruling a vast empire. The popular assemblies were unable to understand and tackle the question of foreign policy. So the Senate controlled the government. The government thus fell into the hands of the rich aristocracy, though the forms of the old Republic remained unchanged. The common people were now patriotic no longer and had no interest in the welfare of the state. They voted for the candidates who offered them gifts of grain and free theatrical shows.

The Senators, now, were not god-fearing and self-sacrificing men but used their power for their own selfish ends. Luxury and greed of wealth greatly increased in them.

On the other hand there was *much suffering among the people*. The wars ruined the farmer-class in Italy. The number of slaves and unemployed soldiers increased. They could find no work. The slaves were treated cruelly. According to Prof. S R Sharma, "*The Empire became a huge farm for breeding slaves and feeding idle and luxurious Romans. This made the Romans both selfish parasites and callous brutes*". As the rich Romans struggled for more power and wealth, the miseries of the poor increased and there were civil wars in Rome. In this connection V A Renouf observes "*The people were divided into two extreme classes, the few rich and many poor. The rich controlled the government for their own profit. The poor mob used their votes chiefly as a means of getting food and amusement. The distress of the masses led to revolutions in Rome, and the greed of the Senatorial class ruined the provinces*".

Corruption, bribery and immorality was rife in Rome. The Senate was dominated by the rich and the republican spirit was dying out. The republican form of government did not seem to handle the situation. Ambitious men tried to gain political power by another method. Military leaders who could win victories and bring back booty became the heroes of the day. When two such leaders struggled for power there was a civil war.

SECTIONS 4—JULIUS CAESAR

1. **Rise to Power and Military Exploits.** Julius was born on July 12, 100 B C in quite a rich and prosperous family. But he was always ready to help the common people. He was the cousin of famous Roman politician Marius. Like Alexander he got a chance to receive good education under the guidance of an able teacher named Antonius. His eloquence, his personal charm and his liberality won



Julius Caesar

him the favour of the masses. As a youngman he fought in a Roman army in Asia and won a "*Civic-Crown*" for saving the life of a fellow soldier. He was appointed as a magistrate in 68 B C. He later on held many high offices of the state and was also chosen as a Governor of the province of Spain. By his skill as a general he won many battles, and by his care for his soldiers he won the love and admiration of the Roman legions. On his return to Rome he was elected one of the two Consuls and soon he became the hero of the citizens.

After serving for one year as a Consul he was sent to Gaul (or modern France) as a Governor. There he spent nine years and greatly extended the Roman empire. He even crossed over to Britain and twice defeated the Britons (in 55—54 B C). He expanded his province until it included all the territory from the Mediterranean to the North Sea and from the Rhine River to the Atlantic ocean. He sent the records of his victory to Rome and became very popular.

Another Roman general, named Pompey, naturally felt much jealous of Caesar, so he tried to overthrow him at any cost. Caesar's glorious career in Gaul had, no doubt made him the most powerful Roman leader. His strongest rival, i.e., Pompey was also a great general. He had also won many victories in Spain, Africa and Asia. He had cleared the Mediterranean Sea of pirates, and like Caesar he had been a Consul. For a time he had been Caesar's friend, but now he was the leader of the party which wished to overthrow Caesar. So it was not very easy for Caesar to face such a rival. According to V.A. Renouf "*His enemies were superior in wealth, in territories, soldiers and in ships. But before the swiftly falling strokes of the Great General all resistance was in vain.*" The Senate, under the advice of Pompey, ordered Caesar to disband his army and come to Rome. He, however, prepared himself for the final blow, defied the order, crossed the River Rubicon and swiftly marched to Rome with his army in 49 B.C.

Pompey fled away simply at the news of Caesar's march to Rome and soon Caesar was the master of Italy. Then he pursued Pompey and defeated him in the battle of Pharsalus in Thessaly (in Greece) in 48 B.C. Pompey fled to Egypt and was murdered there. Caesar deposed the Egyptian ruler Ptolemy XII, fell in love with his sister Cleopatra who was the paragon of beauty. He put her on the throne of Egypt and there she ruled under the control of Rome. Then he continued his conquests in Asia and Africa, and returned home as the master of the Roman world.

Many honours were bestowed on him. He was made dictator for life. The Senate gave him so many offices that he had complete control of the state. The power that had been held by a number of officials were now concentrated in the hands of one man. Though Caesar had not called himself king, it was however quite clear that the republican form of government had ended and one-man-rule of some type was in store for the Roman Empire. Caesar came back to Rome to rule more like an emperor than as a Consul. He, however, kept the out-ward form of a Republic.

Thus because of his all-round conquests and military exploits he is regarded as the greatest of the Roman generals. He ranks with Alexander and Napoleon, the world-famous generals. He rightly used to say, "*I came, I saw, I conquered*".

2. Caesar as an Administrator Caesar was not only a great military general but also an able administrator. He used his power well and introduced many reforms. He forgave his enemies and did all he could do to relieve the misery caused by the long civil wars. He drained the marshy lands of Italy, increased the supplies of corn and gave all possible help to soldiers, town-people and farmers. He improved the drainage system of Rome and ornamented it with beautiful buildings. He improved old cities and built new cities in Italy, Spain, Gaul and Greece, old temples were repaired and new ones were built. He encouraged trade and commerce. He replaced Roman calendar by Egyptian calendar.

and revised it to make it more correct. It was known as Julian calendar and consisted of 365 days. Julius Caesar not only established Roman colonies in different countries but also administered them well. He established direct contact with the provinces and introduced uniform system of administration for all provinces. New laws were made for better government. He improved the Government of Italian cities. Even the people of the conquered territories were granted rights of citizenship. System of taxation was also reformed. He established direct taxation of provinces. His reforms brought a new era of peace and prosperity in the empire. He also organised census in Italy.

3. **Caesar as a Writer.** Caesar was a versatile genius. He was a good writer also. He wrote two historical books. In his book '*De Bello Gallico*' he gives a beautiful description of his conquests in Gaul. In "*De Bello Civili*" we read about his struggle with Pompey. These books reveal that whereas Caesar was a great general and a good administrator he was also a great literary man. He wielded the pen as cleverly as he wielded the sword.

4. **Caesar's Death.** After the fall of Pompey, Caesar, the most powerful man in Rome, became the Dictator for the rest of his life with the title of "Father of his country." Though he refused the crown offered to him still he was the uncrowned king of Italy. His statue was set-up in the Temple of Jupiter. Some people, like Brutus, feared that he was not ruling in the interest of the state and was waiting for a better opportunity to make himself king. The discontented nobles and officers formed a plot and murdered Caesar in the Senate House on 15th March, 44 B.C. Thus died Julius Caesar "*A king among men, though he was never king of Rome*"

5 **An Estimate of Caesar** Julius Caesar was a versatile genius. He was a brave soldier and a great general. As a general he ranked with Alexander and Hannibal. He was an able administrator and introduced reforms for the welfare of the Romans. He possessed many qualities of head and heart. He was a clever ruler, a shrewd politician and a popular leader. As a statesman he stands second to none. He was a man of letters and a great writer. As a writer of Latin prose he is still admired by all western classical students. He made a deep impression on one and all. His name became synonymous with Emperor, and as such was adopted by his successors and by modern Czars and Kaisers.

About his greatness V A Renouf writes, "*To no man has the title 'the Greatest' has so often been accorded by historians as to Caesar.*" Mommsen observes, "*Julius Caesar was a Roman in the deepest essence of his nature, and yet called to reconcile and combine in himself as well as in the outer world, the Roman and Hellenic types of culture—Caesar was the entire and perfect man.*"

SECTION 5—THE AGE OF AUGUSTUS AS THE GOLDEN PERIOD OF ROME

Augustus was a wise and able statesman, and a benevolent ruler of Rome. He was the nephew of Julius Caesar. He introduced many reforms for the welfare of his subjects. His reign (27 B.C. to 14 A.D.) witnessed all round development and has been rightly called as the Golden Age of Rome.

1. **Efficient Administration** Augustus introduced an efficient system of administration in the provinces. He took great care in appointing governors of provinces and held them responsible for the safety and prosperity of the territory. He encouraged local self-government and extended powers of local institutions. He reorganized army, increased the number of soldiers to 22,500. The army was raised from the provinces and conquered territories. In order to bring efficiency in the administration and to remove the evils of nepotism and corruption, he abolished the system of elected magistracy. He created a permanent imperial civil service on the basis of merit. In this way he abolished the privileges of the patrician class. As a result of his reforms he brought complete security and peace in the Roman Empire.



Augustus Caesar

2. **Economic Prosperity.** He left no stone unturned for the economic prosperity of the people. Peace promoted trade, commerce and industry. To encourage trade he crushed the pirates and made good roads. Roman goods found their way in the markets of the world. Under him Rome became a wealthy and prosperous empire.

3. **Happy and Prosperous Life.** Augustus introduced many reforms for the welfare of the people. As the trade and

industry flourished people led a happy and prosperous life. The finances of the state were reformed and competent men were put in charge of the treasury. He improved the system of taxation. Taxes were levied and collected fairly. He made many laws for the moral uplift of the people. His reforms satisfied all classes of people and helped them to lead a happy life.

4 Advancement in Literature. Peace and prosperity of Augustus's reign encouraged literature. The Epics of poets like Horace and Vergil immortalized their names in history. Livy wrote the '*History of Rome*'. Their writings made the Augustus Age the Golden Age of the Latin literature.

5 Advancement in Architecture. Augustus was a great lover of art and architecture. He constructed very solid and splendid buildings everywhere in Rome. He made Rome the most beautiful city in the world. He raised many fine buildings of marble. He ornamented Rome with beautiful temples, roads, theatres, libraries, bridges, bath-houses, palaces etc. He built an Amphitheatre for the amusement of the people. He himself once said "*I received Rome a city of bricks, I am leaving it one of marble*".

6. Consolidation instead of Expansion of Empire. Augustus was the master of a large empire. In the west the Atlantic, in the south the deserts of Africa, in the east the Euphrates, in the north the Russian Steppes and Germany formed the natural limits of his empire. Instead of expanding the boundaries of his empire he paid his attention to consolidate it. In this way he lessened his difficulties and ruled safely for about forty years. **V.A. Renouf** has rightly said, "*Augustus wished to govern well the existing empire rather than to enlarge it by further conquests.*"

7. Birth of Jesus Christ. According to **V.A. Renouf** the birth of Jesus Christ; the founder of Christianity, in a small town of Judea in Palestine was an important event in the history of the world. At that time Palestine was a part of the Roman Empire. The teachings of Jesus Christ were destined to transform the western world and to form the basis of modern civilization.

In short, Augustus was an able administrator and a great statesman. He established peace and order; reformed the provincial administration, promoted trade and commerce; brought prosperity and encouraged art, architecture and literature. That is why his reign has been called 'the Golden Age of Rome'.

SECTION 6 :—CHIEF FEATURES OF THE ROMAN CIVILIZATION

The Roman civilization which flourished from the eighth century B.C. to the fifth century A.D. had the following chief features :—

1. Roman Society. The Roman Society was divided into two classes. The first class consisted of rich aristocrats who were called '*Patricians*'. They were big landlords and lived a luxurious life in palatial buildings fitted with all the amenities of life. Games, gladiatorial fights and chariot-races were staged for their amusements. The second class comprised of common people known as '*Plebeians*'. Labourers and craftsmen were included in this class. The condition of the masses was deplorable. They lived in very undesirable environments. They did not have adequate food. The poor in the farm-villages also led a miserable life and lived in one-room-houses.

Besides these two main classes there were slaves in large numbers. They were not considered as freeman and enjoyed no rights. They lived like animals and could be bought and sold like them. They had to toil very hard. They lived a very miserable life and were not treated well. They were considered the property of their owners and could not leave them. They were killed if they ever tried to run away from their cruel masters.

The *family* was the most important institution of Rome and had a lasting influence upon Roman character. The head of family had absolute authority over the members of the family. They lived in strict discipline and had great respect for the head of the family. *Women* were held in great respect in the Roman society. They were mistresses of their homes. They could attend public games and festivals and discuss politics.

The Romans enjoyed many *amusements*. They were very fond of seeing circus shows, wrestling matches, gladiatorial fights, chariot-races etc. In every city there was a stadium where combats were arranged among wild animals like lions, bears and leopards etc. Sometimes slaves were also forced to fight these wild animals. They were also fond of dramas which were held in theatres but the circus-shows were far more popular than the theatre. A Roman dramatist once wrote that many people left the theatre when his play was being staged to see a fight between the two bears.

2. Economic Life. *Agriculture* was the basic and main occupation of the Romans. They grew barley, beans, millet and wheat. They kept orchards and grew grapes, figs and olives. They practised crop rotation and used fertilizers. Cultivation was done with the help of slaves and landless labour. Trade and commerce flourished as the empire extended. Rome had trade relations with Egypt, Syria, Persia, Arabia and India. They exported glazed pottery, wine, olive oil and metals and imported manufactured goods, grain, dyes, precious stones, glassware, cotton, spices etc. The trade encouraged various industries and crafts.

3. Religion and Philosophy The early Romans worshipped the forces of nature and family gods. Their contact with other peoples especially the Greeks soon changed their religion. *Jupiter*,

Mars, Neptune, Diana and Minerva were their chief gods. Temples were built and statues were placed in them. Festivals were held to please the gods. The priests were in charge of the temples and conducted the festivals. The Romans followed a policy of religious tolerance and did not impose their religion on the people of the conquered territories. They also believed in ancestor-worship. During the reign of Augustus they began to worship the king as a god. This practice continued even after his death. The birth of Christianity is the greatest contribution of Rome to the world. The founder of this religion, Jesus Christ, was born in Palestine which was a province of the Roman Empire. Later on the Roman Emperor Constantine embraced this religion and made it a world religion.

The Roman philosophy had its origin in Greek Philosophy. Their contributions in this field is not, however, very important. *Cato*, (234-149 B.C.) was a great Roman Philosopher and like Socrates he laid great stress on reason, enlightenment and moral discipline. *Cicero* (106-43 B.C.) prepared a philosophical encyclopaedia and preserved the earlier philosophies in it. *Seneca* (4 B.C.-65 A.D.) was one of the greatest of the Roman philosophers. He believed in the equality of man and service of mankind. Emperor Aurelius (121-180 A.D.) tried to give practical shape to his philosophical ideas.

4. Education The Romans were always careful about the education of their children. Roman boys were brought up by their mothers and when they were grown up they were brought up either by their fathers or sent to schools. The girls were trained in reading, writing and in the art of home making, spinning, weaving, cooking etc. Great stress was laid on character-building and cultivating good manners and behaviour.

There were enough private schools to teach, the people could send their children to Elementary Schools, Grammar Schools and High Schools. The boys in Elementary Schools learned to read, write, do simple arithmetic and recite the Laws of Twelve Tablets. Sometimes the rich people employed Greek tutors for the education of their children, otherwise they sent their children to Grammar Schools and High Schools. Arithmetic, Geometry, Singing, Dancing, Grammar, Dialectics, Rhetoric, Astronomy, Medicine and Architecture were the subjects of study in these schools. The state had opened colleges for the advanced study of the above mentioned subjects.

The boys got up before day-break to go to the school. Sometimes rich people engaged slaves who took the children to schools, supervised them there and helped them to receive education. School began at day-break and lasted most of the day. Discipline was very strict and stick was freely used so that the boys might learn their lessons properly.

5 Literature The Romans borrowed much from the Greeks in the field of literature. It has been rightly said, "*Cultured Romans acquired their accomplishments from their Greek slaves, who also kept*

schools for them." They added much to what they learnt from the Greeks. They used *Latin language* and it is their greatest contribution to the modern civilization. It was an international language upto the 13th century and many words of English language have their origin in Latin. In this connection **Dr. Will Durant** writes, "one of the greatest gifts of the Rome was the Latin language. Her language became the speech of Italy, Rumania, France, Spain, Portugal and Latin America—half the white man's world speak a Latin language".

The Roman Emperor Augustus was a great lover of literature. Under his patronage a literature of high standard was produced in Rome. His reign has been rightly called the Golden Age of literature in Rome. *Julius Caesar* not only himself made history but also wrote it. His '*Commentaries*' on his wars in Gaul are an example of prose in the finest Latin. *Livy* was the greatest of the Roman historians. He wrote the '*History of Rome*'. *Tacitus*, *Polybius* and *Plutarch* were the other famous historians of Rome. *Pliny* wrote a book called '*Natural History*'.

Virgil, *Horace* and *Lucretius* were the most famous poets of Rome and they raised the glory of Rome to the highest peak through their immortal writings. *Virgil* ranks among the greatest poets in the world. '*Aeneid*' is his great epic. In his other work '*Georgics*' he showed his love for the land and the beauties of nature. He was given the most splendid title of "*Voice of Rome*". *Horace* was the writer of the famous *Odes*. He emphasized simple and quiet living. *Lucretius* was the author of the famous work "*De Rerum Natura*."

Cicero was also a great statesman and writer of prose. He has been called the master of Latin prose because he beautified and perfected the Latin prose. *Plautus* and *Terence* were the greatest dramatists of Rome and they wrote comedies while *Seneca* wrote nine tragedies. *Galen* wrote books on logic, ethics and grammar etc. *Ptolemy* was a great writer of astronomy and geography.

6. Art and Architecture The Romans were less artistic than the Greeks, there is no denying the fact that they learnt much from the Greeks but they were more practical and showed their genius by making their own contribution.

Roman architecture was greatly influenced by the Greek architecture. Some of their finest buildings were designed by the Greeks but they made some original contribution also. Solidity and magnificence of conception are the important features of their architecture. In their buildings we see the combination of ideas of beauty and service. The Romans taught the world the use of arches, vaults and domes. According to **H.G Wells**, "*The chief gifts of Rome to architecture were cement and the free use of arch*". They adorned their cities of Rome and Pompey with beautiful roads, bridges, public bath-houses, forums, (market places), palaces, temples, theatres and triumphal arches.

Rome was the most beautiful city of the world at that time. There were multi-storeyed buildings in it. The *Pompey's Theatre*

was a magnificent structure and a fine example of architecture. There was a stage in the centre and on all sides there was a three-storeyed semi-circular building. The *Imperial Forum* built by Julius Caesar was also worth-seeing. It was a complete marble structure, in Greek style, with the Temple of Venus in the centre. The *Imperial Palace* of Augustus was also unique. The Roman architects constructed fine public bath-houses but the *Hot Spring-Bath* built by the architect Apollodorus was matchless. It was considered as a "miracle of architectural skill." The *Triumphal Arch of Titus* was the most beautiful and magnificent work of art. Carvings on it were also splendid.

Colosseum and *Pantheon* are the best examples of the architectural skill of the Roman architects.



The Colosseum

Colosseum was a circular theatre where the Romans saw the fights between the slaves and the wild beasts. They were known as gladiatorial shows. The theatre had a seating capacity of 8000 spectators. Another famous Roman building was the *Pantheon*. It was so called because it was built in honour of all Roman gods and it contained their statues. The word '*Pantheon*' means "all the gods." It was a fine example of concrete construction. The walls were 20 feet thick and they supported a dome which rose 142 feet from the floor. This building is still in good condition and is used as a church these days. The rise of Christianity gave a new impetus to Roman architecture. *St. Peter's Church* in Rome, *St. Sophia* in Constantinople and other such buildings in Jerusalem are the finest examples of Roman architecture of the later period of the Roman Empire.

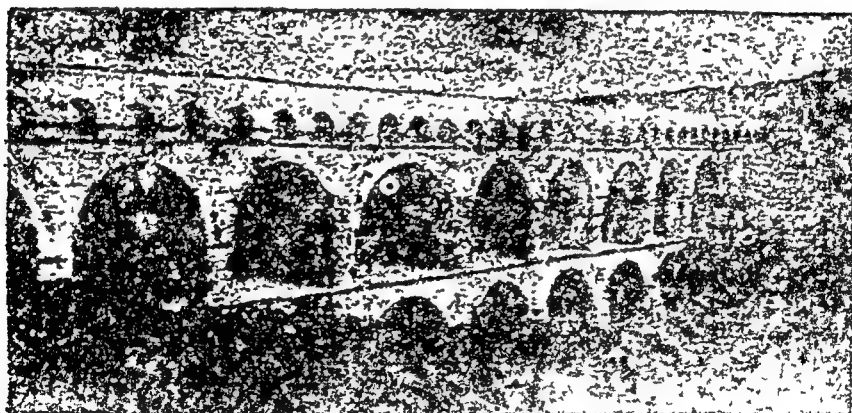
Roman sculpture was very similar to the Greek. Their main aim was to immortalize the individual. They showed some originality in base-reliefs. They adorned their temples and other public building with statues and carvings. The *Head of a Roman Youth* (100 A.D.) is a good example of the Roman sculpture at its best.

Paintings also show Greek influence, but those dealing with natural subjects appear to be original. The artists showed their

skill in land-landscape paintings. This art died by 200 A.D. but the rise of Christianity once again revived this art.

7. Roman Roads. The Romans built solid roads and bridges to connect the various parts of the empire. The Romans carried the art of road building to greatest perfection. Roman roads were the finest, the world ever knew, until recent times. Many modern roads in North Africa and many parts of Europe are built on the actual bases laid by the Roman builders. There were 372 main routes in Italy and 12,000 miles of well-paved roads. The bases of the roads were well laid with the help of stones. On the base were spread various layers of concrete, one above the other. They were paved with a mixture of cement, sand, concrete and lime to make them strong and durable. No one can excel the Romans in the art of road-building.

8 Roman Engineering. If one examines the buildings, roads, bridges, aqueducts, huge harbours and docks etc built by the Romans, one comes to the conclusion that the Romans were a nation of engineers. Even to-day we are surprised to see their solid and imposing structures like theatres, arches, palaces, baths, Colosseum and Pantheon etc. The roads, bridges and aqueducts built by them are matchless and speak of the engineering skill and genius



A Roman Aqueduct in France

of the Romans. Another engineering feat of the Romans was the walls built along the northern border to keep out the barbaric Germans. The modern engineers are greatly indebted to Roman engineers who were the first to prepare a mixture of cement, concrete, sand, lime and water to construct solid structures.

9 Roman Laws While Greece gave great philosophers, Rome produced great law-givers. All were equal before law. Appeals could be made against injustice. According to Prof. John Conard, "Rome commanded leadership because of the justice of Roman Law."

The Romans made many civil and criminal laws to safeguard their rights. Roman system of law came into being gradually and over a long period. In the days before the Republic the laws were made and administered by the kings. After a long struggle the Plebians got victory over the Patricians and the Roman laws were codified in Twelve Tables. They were placed in the forum (or market place) where all could see and read them. As life developed and changed, the Romans also revised their laws according to the new situations. The Roman Senate passed many laws from time to time, later on the emperors issued decrees which became a part of the Roman legal system. The Roman judges made decisions according to laws based on justice and common sense. All these went a long way in the development of legal system of Rome.

The Roman laws lay scattered at various places and courts and did not exist in one written unit. The Roman Emperor Justinian (527-565 A.D.) appointed a commission of ten legal experts to collect and codify all such laws. They arranged the laws in orderly form and prepared a code of laws known as '*Corpus Juris Civilis of Justinian*'. Justinian earned the title of the "*The Lawgiver of civilization*." This is the greatest contribution of Rome to the world. This Code forms the basis of the legal system of modern civilized nations. John Conrad observes, "*These laws not only were the most wise and human laws of the ancient world, but they form the most precious inheritance that the modern world has from Rome.*"

SECTION 7—COMPARISON OF THE ROMAN AND THE GREEK CIVILIZATIONS

(a) **Similarities.** The Roman and the Greek civilizations had certain similarities :—

(1) Both the civilizations were not so old as the Egyptian, Mesopotamian, Indian and the Chinese civilizations.

(2) Both played an equally important part in the development of European civilization.

(3) The Slave system was popular both in Greece and Rome.

(b) **Dis-similarities.** But both these civilizations differed in many ways.

(1) *One Idealists and the other Practical-minded People.* The Greeks were idealists and highly imaginative and visionary. They made wonderful progress in the field of art, architecture and literature and made many inventions and discoveries. On the other hand, the Romans were practical-minded people and lacked originality. They copied the Greeks and did not make much original contribution to the world.

(2) *City-States and Empire-building.* The Greeks established city-states and developed separatist tendency. They could not unify

themselves into a large empire. Romans had genius for organization. They established a vast empire and gave to the world the idea of world-Empire.

(3) *Many and one Centre of Civilization.* In Greece there were various centres of civilization and culture such as Athens, Sparta, Thebes etc. On the other hand Rome was the only centre of Roman culture and civilization in Italy.

(4) *Administration and Laws.* The Greeks lagged behind the Romans in the field of administration and law. Their empire comprised of the various parts of Europe, Africa and Asia but they introduced a uniform system of administration. They gave equal justice to all. They prepared a code of laws which formed the basis of the legal systems of various countries of the world.

(5) *Freedom of Thought in the one and Discipline and Obedience in the other.* The Greeks laid emphasis on the freedom of thought while the Romans attached great importance to discipline and obedience. The Greek philosophers like Socrates, Plato and Aristotle bore hardships for the freedom of thought.

(6) *Different Means of Amusements.* Both had different means of amusements. The Roman means of amusements were very cruel. The Greeks were very fond of dancing, singing, dramas and literature etc. The Romans took great interest in seeing fights between slaves and wild animals, hunting and chariot races etc. They feel happy when they saw the slaves dying fighting or being killed by the wild animals.

(7) *Different Approach to Architecture.* The Romans copied Greek architecture but later on developed a style of architecture quite different from that of the Greeks. The Greeks emphasized on beauty while solidity was the main feature of the Roman buildings. The ceilings of the Greek buildings were supported by columns while those of the Romans rested on arches. The Greeks laid emphasis on religious buildings (temples) while the Romans on the secular type of buildings such as roads, bridges, baths and theatres etc.

SECTION 8—LEGACY OR CONTRIBUTION OF THE ROMAN CIVILIZATION

The Roman civilization like the Greek civilization occupy a high place in the history of the world. The Greek civilization played an important part in the development of the Roman civilization. The Romans lacked the imagination of the Greeks but they were practical minded people and possessed genius. They learnt much from the Greeks but also added many new things. In the words of Hearnshaw, "Rome was a conveyor rather than a creator. its citizens were organizers, rulers, lawyers, disciplinarians, teachers rather than original thinkers, inventors, pioneers of new ideas or discoverers of

novel institutions. Nevertheless, the Romans added a few items of enduring value to western civilization."

(1) *Empire-Building*. The Romans conquered many territories and laid the foundation of a very vast empire. It included Italy, Greece, Syria, Spain, France, Egypt, Mesopotamia and North Africa etc. No other nation before the Romans had established such a large empire. It lasted for about five hundred years while the Egyptian Empire, Mesopotamian Empire, the Persian and the Alexandrian Empires collapsed soon. The Romans were not in favour of creating small city-states as in Greece. The Romans gave the idea of one world and taught that a vast empire could function efficiently under one government.

(2) *Art of Government*. The Romans were well-versed in the art of government. They taught to the world not only to create a vast empire but also how to organise it and to rule it on efficient grounds. Their system of administration was based on the maxim '*Imperium et Libertes*' i.e. empire and freedom. The government was centralized in the hands of the Emperor. He controlled the distant provinces with the help of governors who were responsible to him for the good government of the provinces. But the provinces were granted freedom in local affairs. They maintained peace in the empire with the help of large army. They taught civilization to the barbarians and united them together. This is their greatest legacy to the present world. One world government is the need of the present time so that different nations of the world could live in peace. Another great contribution of the Romans is the indirect democracy or representative form of government which has been adopted by most of the countries of the world. In this connection **Will Durant** observes, "It moulded a government of separated legislative and executive powers whose checks and balances inspired the makers of constitutions as late as revolutionary America and France."

(3) *Military Organisation*. Their military organisation was also very efficient. The Romans produced great military leaders like Julius Caesar, Pompey etc. who are without equals even today. They organised large armies, extended the boundaries of their empire and established peace and order. Military organisation and discipline is the greatest legacy of the Romans.

(4) *The Roman Law*. The world is greatly indebted to the Romans for their contribution in the field of law. The Greeks gave famous philosophers to the world while the Romans produced great law-givers. Roman Law forms the basis of the legal system of various nations of the modern world. Justinian gave to the world his famous Code of Laws known as '*Corpus Juris Civilis*'. It is the foundation of almost all the modern systems of law.

(5) *Religious Toleration*. The Romans paved the way for religious toleration. The Romans were very liberal and tolerant. They kept politics aloof from religion. People of various nations

and having different religions lived in the Roman Empire but they did not persecute them. They adopted a policy of religious toleration towards all

(6) *Spread of Christianity* Christianity was a small sect in the beginning. It took its birth in the Roman Empire, spread far and wide under them and ultimately became a world-religion. The Roman Emperor Constantine became the follower of this religion and made it a state religion. This act of the Roman Emperor went a long way in the spread of Christianity throughout the world.

(7) *Architecture.* The Romans had left a rich legacy in the field of architecture. They built solid and imposing structures. They constructed temples, palaces, baths, theatres etc, which are the best examples of the skill of the Roman architects. They taught the world the use of arches, vaults and domes. It has been rightly remarked by H. G. Wells, "*The chief gifts of Rome to architecture were cement and free use of arch*".

(8) *Roads and Bridges.* The Romans built solid and long roads and bridges to connect the various parts of their empire. The modern world is indebted to them for their art of road-building. They also constructed harbours, docks and aqueducts. They all speak of the engineering skill and genius of the Roman engineers.

(9) *Literature* Latin language is the greatest contribution of the Romans. Rome produced great writers like Virgil, Horace, Livy, Tacitus, Ptolemy, Pliny, Cicero, Plutarch etc who produced a literature of very high standard, which greatly influenced the literature of the world.

(10) *Science.* The Romans borrowed much from the Greeks in the sphere of medicine and other sciences but the hospital system is their original contribution. They had organised a medical service and department of public health. No body was allowed to bury the dead bodies within the city walls. Water was supplied through aqueducts. There were five physicians in every small town and ten in big towns. Charles Singer observes in this connection, "*The great contribution of Rome to medicine—and it is a very great one—is the hospital system.*"

In short, we can say that the modern-world is greatly indebted to the Romans. The Roman civilization was of high order like the Greek civilization. The Greeks produced rich literature, philosophical doctrines and beautiful pieces of art. On the other hand the Romans were the first to give to the world the idea of world government, law, military organization and the art of government. It is often said, "*West and Europe are Rome enlarged.*" About the contribution of Rome Dr. J. E. Swain observes, "*Rome fell only in the sense that her imperial hegemony ceased to exist. Most of her cultural contributions lived and were fused with other ideas, which formed the basis for new civilizations. The Latin language, Roman political ideals, law, military organisation and*

engineering were valuable contributions to posterity." Similarly John Conard writes, "With all its faults and weaknesses, the Roman Empire had taken the world a long way forward in civilization. The Greek idea of democracy, which was suited only to a small population, was improved when the Romans built a representative democracy which could be used by vast populations. They welded the Mediterranean world into one unit, spreading a common culture throughout the empire. Roman writers produced enduring literature. Roman law was so just and humane that the western world used it as a model."

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-shell

SECTION 1—The Roman Republic

The Peninsula of Italy 650 miles long or 100 miles wide stretches like a boot in the middle of Mediterranean sea. Various races occupied Italy in ancient time. (i) The Swiss lake-dwellers (2) Indo-European tribes. (3) The Etruscans. (4) The Greeks and (5) The Phoenicians.

1 **Rise of the Roman Republic.** Foundation of Rome in 753 B.C.; Conquests of Rome by Etruscan Prince in 750 and establishment of monarchy. In 509 B.C. the nobles established a Republic, Its chief features were (i) Political organization (ii) Struggle between Patricians and Plebeians, (iii) Difference between the Roman and Greek democracies; (iv) Foundation of the Empire, (v) The Roman Military System and Increase in the wealth of rich classes.

Fall of the Republic Causes—(i) Struggle between the Plebeians and the Patricians, (ii) Expansion of the empire, (iii) Continuous wars (iv) Corrupt influence of money, v) Condition of the farmers, (vi) Slaves; (vii) Rise of Militarism and rise of Octavius.

SECTION 2—Rise and Fall of the Roman Empire

1 **Rise of the Roman Empire.** Overthrow of warrior races, Conquest of Italy by 279 B.C. Punic Wars, 264 to 146 B.C.; Foundation of the Vast Empire.

2 **Causes of the Rise of the Roman Empire.** (1) Favourable geographical position; (2) Roman armies and laws, (3) Roman character.

3 **The Decline of the Empire.** (1) Four Julian Emperors (14-68 A.D.) (2) The Flavian Emperors (69-96 A.D.) (3) The Five good Emperors (96-180 A.D.) (4) Diocletian (264-305 A.D.) (5) Constantine (323-337 A.D.) and division of Empire into two parts (6) Fall of Empire—Germanic attacks and collapse of the Empire in 476 A.D.

4 **Causes of Decline of the Roman Empire.** (1) Weak and incompetent rulers (2) Wealth and Luxury (3) Vast-extent of empire (4) Change of capital (5) Division of Empire (6) Weakness

of the Army (7) Heavy and oppressive taxes (8) Slave system (9) Unproductive economy (10) The absence of law of succession (11) Christianity (12) Barbarian Invasions.

SECTION 3—The Punic Wars (264-167 B.C.)

1 **Causes.** Main cause jealousy.

2 **Punic Wars** (i) First Punic War (264-241 B.C.) and Roman conquest of Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica (ii) Second Punic War (219-200 B.C.) role of Hannibal: Roman victory at Zama and defeat of Carthage, Supremacy over Eastern Mediterranean and conquest of Greece and Asia Minor (iii) The Third Punic War (149-146 B.C.)—Defeat of Carthage and Rome became the mistress of the Mediterranean world

3. **Effects of Punic Wars.** Disastrous for democracy and People, Government fell into the hands of rich aristocrats, Common people not patriotic now, Senators were selfish, ruthless and ease-loving politicians, Increase in the number of jobless people, Corruption, bribery and immorality.

SECTION 4—Julius Caesar

(1) *Rise to Power and Military Exploits* He was cousin of famous politician Marius; Received education from Antonius, Got a 'civic crown' for bravery, Acting as Magistrate, Governor Consul and a General, All round conquests in Spain, Gaul (France) and Britain, Defeating Pompey inspite of all his vast resources.

(2) *Caesar as an Administrator.* He was a great administrator beside being a great conquerer and an empire builder, He established law and order in the whole of the Roman empire and saved the people from the oppressions of the officers

(3) *As a Writer.* He was also a writer of the highest-order, His two books '*De Bello Gallico*' and '*De Bello Civili*' are still regarded as a great piece of literature as well as of history

(4) *His Death* His rise to power created much jealousy in the minds of his opponents who hatched a conspiracy and murdered him in the Senate House on 15th March, 44 B.C.

(5) *An Estimate.* He was undoubtedly a great conqueror and empire builder, an able administrator and a great writer. In short he was a versatile genius

SECTION 5—The Age of Augustus as the Golden Period of the Romans

He was a nephew of illustrious Julius Caesar, He held the reigns of the administration from 27 B.C. to 14 A.D. During this period Rome achieved so much that the period is regarded as the Golden Period of the Romans because of the various reasons which are (1) Efficient Administration, (2) Economic Prosperity, (3) Happy and Prosperous life, (4) Advancement in Literature, (5) Advancement in Architecture, (6) Consolidation of the Empire instead of expansion, (7) Birth of Jesus Christ.

SECTION 6—Chief Features of the Roman Civilization

(1) *Roman Society*. (1) Two classes—Patricians who led a happy life and Plebeians who lived miserably; (2) Slave system and their wretched lot; (3) Family life; (4) High position of women. (5) Amusements—circus; gladiatorial shows, chariot, races etc.

(2) *Economic Life*. (1) Agriculture main occupation; Cultivation of wheat, barley, beans, grapes, figs and olives, (2) Trade relations with various countries; (3) Crafts.

(3) *Religion and Philosophy*. (1) Worship of gods such as Jupiter, Mars, Neptune, Diana and Minerva etc.; (2) Temple and festivals; (3) Never forgot the dead; (4) Religious Toleration (5) King-worship during the reign of Augustus and afterwards (6) Birth of Christianity; (7) Cato, Panaelius and Seneca were great philosophers and followers of Greek Philosophers.

(4) *Education*. (1) Education at home; (2) Arrangement of primary schools and high schools; (3) College education, (4) Greek Tutors; (5) Severe Punishments.

(5) *Literature*. (1) Latin Language; (2) Julius Caesar, Livy, Tacitus, Plutarch, Virgil, Horace, Lucretius, Glen and Ptolemy were great Roman writers

(6) *Art and Architecture*. (1) Copied Greek art; (2) Great Architects, Invention of Arch, Vaults and dome, Construction of Theatres, Baths, Triumphal Arches, Temples, Palaces, Colosseum and Pantheon etc.; Adoration of public buildings with Statues and carvings; (3) Skilful in landscape paintings; (4) Solid and imposing buildings.

(7) *Roads* (1) Construction of roads and bridges to connect various parts of large empire; (2) Use of cement and concrete (3) Roads still in use.

(8) *Roman Engineering*. Construction of buildings, roads, bridges, aqueducts, harbours, docks all speak about the skill of the Roman engineers

(9) *Roman Law*. Twelve Tables; Decrees of Kings; Laws made by Assembly; Judge-made laws, Codification of laws by Justinian, Basis of Legal systems of world.

SECTION 7—Comparison of the Roman and the Greek Civilizations

(a) *Similarities*. Both civilizations not old; Part played in the development of European culture, The Slave system

(b) *Dis-similarities* (1) Greeks were idealists and imaginative but the Romans were practical-minded; (2) Greek city states versus Roman Empire, (3) Centres of civilization and culture, (4) Administration and laws, (5) Freedom of thought versus discipline and obedience; (6) Different means of amusements; (7) Art and Literature.

SECTION 8—Legacy of the Roman Civilization

(1) Empire-building ; (2) Art of Government ; (3) Military Organization; (4) Roman Law ; (5) Religious Toleration ; (6) Spread of Christianity ; (7) Architecture ; (8) Roads and Bridges ; (9) Literature ; (10) Science.

University and other Important Questions

1. Describe the salient features of the Roman Republic and give reasons for its eventual failure (B.U. 1957)
2. Explain the factors which made Rome as one of the greatest empires of the history. (B.U. 1961)
3. What factors contributed to the building up of Roman Empire. (B.U. 1956; C.B.S.E. 1970)
4. What were the causes of the Punic Wars? State what you know about them.
5. Describe the life and works of Julius Caesar. (B.U. 1958; U.U. 1963)
6. Trace the career and conquests of Julius Caesar. What reforms did he accomplish? (B.U. 1965)
7. Narrate the achievements of the Romans during the Augustus Age. (B.U. 1960, 64, 67)
8. What are the contributions of Ancient Rome to civilization? (B.U. 1962, U.U. 1965)
9. Explain the importance of law and literature in ancient Rome (B.U. 1970)
10. In what fields of human activities were the ancient Romans the first people to influence the world of today? (B.U. 1971)
11. Compare the contribution of Greece with that of Rome (B.U. 1959)
12. In what significant respects did Roman civilization complement the Greek culture. (B.U. 1963)
13. Briefly compare and contrast political institutions of Greece and Rome. (C.B.S.E. 1971)
14. Write in about ten lines what you know about each of the following. (B.U. 1964)
 - (i) Roman Law (ii) Roman Legacy in the field of language and Literature
 - (iii) Causes of the downfall of the Roman Empire (iv) Roman Architecture and Sculpture (v) Extension of Roman Empire and its causes.
15. Write short notes on the following :

(i) Julius Caesar (B.U. 1955, 67) (ii) Augustus Caesar (B.U. 1965); (v) Horace; (vi) Carthage, (ix) Antony; (xi) Marcus Aurelius; (xiii) Plebians,	(ii) Punic Wars (B.U. 1959) (iv) Constantine; (vi) Virgil, (viii) Cicero; (x) Pompey, (xii) Patricians; (xiv) Colosseum;
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16. Mark the correct answers :—
 - (i) City of Rome was situated on the bank of river Nile/Tibre/Euphrates.
 - (ii) Julius Caesar was murdered in 41/44/28 B.C.
 - (iii) Constantine laid the foundation of Rome/Carthage/Constantinople
 - (iv) Julius Caesar/Augustus Caesar was great Roman general.
 - (v) Virgil/Horace/Livy was the writer of the History of the Roman Republic.

Rise and Spread of Buddhism

In the beginning the Hindu Religion was very simple and it was easy to understand it. But slowly and slowly many defects cropped up and this religion became very complex and expensive. In the sixth century B.C. the common people began to feel its weight and pined for a simple religion which could be easily understood by them. This resulted in the rise of a new sect in the form of Buddhism.

SECTION 1—LIFE AND TEACHINGS OF LORD BUDDHA

1. **Life of Mahatma Buddha.** (1) *Early Life.* Buddha, the founder of Buddhism, was a Sakya prince. His father, Suddhōdana, was the ruler of Kapilvastu, which was situated in the Nepal Tarai. His early name was Gautam. He was born in 567 B.C. (according to Ray Chaudhuri and Majumdar)¹ in the Lumbini Garden, near Kapilvastu. His mother died seven days after his birth and he was brought up by his step-mother Gautami. He was a very intelligent lad and every possible effort was made to educate him. He took little care of worldly affairs. He spent long hours while pondering over such philosophical questions as birth, death and sufferings. In order to divert his attention from this side his father married him to a beautiful princess Yashodhara, when he was 19 years old. For sometimes he led the married life and got a son named Rahul.

(2) *The Great Renunciation in 537 B.C.* Every effort was made to provide every sort of comfort to the prince but all such efforts completely failed to provide him peace of mind. While accompanying his charioteer Channa he came across very heart-rending sights of suffering, agony, death and disease. His tender heart was shattered to see all that and he realized that the world was full of misery and should be renounced. So one night, at the age of 29, when his wife was enjoying a sound sleep he slipped away from his house and broke all the worldly ties. This event in his life is known as the "*Great Renunciation*".

¹ The view of V.A. Smith that Buddha was born in 623 B.C. is not so popular these days.

(3) *Attainment of the Highest Knowledge in 522 B.C.* Leaving his home he reached Rajgriha, the capital of Magadha, and became the disciple of two distinguished Brahman teachers of his time. Getting no solace from them he practised the severest austerity and penance in the jungles for six years. He reduced himself to mere skeleton and once he would have collapsed had not a girl offered him a glass of milk. At last, thinking that mere sufferings and sacrifices could not lead him to truth, he left that path. At last one night, when he was sitting under a *pipal* tree at Gaya the true light dawned on him and he became Buddha or the Enlightened one in 531 B.C.



Mahatma Buddha preaching to his Disciples

(4) *Preaching Work:* As Buddha had now found a path out of the miseries of the world he engaged himself to the work of freeing suffering mankind from the shackles and agonies of life. He delivered his first sermon in the 'Deer Park' at Sarnath and converted five disciples to Buddhism. This event is known as "*Dharma Chakra Pravartana*" or "*Turning of the Wheel of Law*" in the history of Buddhism. He spent the rest of his life in preaching Buddhism from one part of the country to another. He visited Kapilvastu when his father, son, relatives and many people became his disciples. A large number of people of Magadha and Kosala including their rulers also embraced Buddhism with a rapid speed.

(5) *Buddha's Death.* At last, after a strenuous life of 45 years, which he spent in preaching and conversion, Buddha died in 487 B.C. at Kushinagar at the age of eighty.

2 **Teachings of Lord Buddha.** Buddha's teachings were very simple. They dealt with practical life and did not contain any philosophical and vague dogmas. They were as under :—

(1) *Four Noble Truths and Eight-fold Path.* According to Buddha there are Four Noble Truths:— (1) This world is full of misery and sorrow. (2) Their main cause is desire. (3) Misery and sorrow can be ended by killing the desire, and (4) The desire can be suppressed or killed by following the Eight-fold Path. The Eight-Fold Path consists of the eight principles—(1) Right Belief, (2) Right Thought, (3) Right Speech, (4) Right Action, (5) Right Living, (6) Right Effort, (7) Right Memory and (8) Right Meditation

This path is sometimes called the Middle Path because on the one hand Buddha hated the too much dogmatic and worldly life of the Brahmins and on the other he disliked the grim austerity of the Jains. He avoided these extremes and followed the middle-path

(2) *Ahimsa.* He believed in the sanctity of all living-beings and laid great stress on Ahimsa - He did not favour either the killing of animals or causing injury to them. According to him men, birds and beasts are worthy of our love.

(3) *Silence over the Existence of God.* Buddha maintained silence over the existence of God because he did not want that his faith should ever become a prey to controversy of any sort. He neither denies his existence nor considers it necessary for the attainment of Nirvana.

(4) *No Faith in Yajna, Sacrifice and Ritualism.* Buddha had no faith in Yajnas and costly sacrifices and rituals. He rather denounced their performance. He could not reconcile himself to the superiority of the Brahmins and their sacred books *Vedas*. He believed that all outward show is useless in the attainment of Nirvana

(5) *No Faith in the Caste-System.* He denounced the caste-system in the bitterest words. The distinction in society should depend on one's actions rather than on his birth. A wicked person must be denounced though he may be a Brahmin, and a noble Sudra is worthy of our praise

(6) *Nirvana.* The chief aim of man's life is the attainment of Nirvana or the highest bliss—a state in which one makes himself free from the cycles of births and deaths. It can be achieved by any person of any caste and creed.

(7) *Karma Theory.* Buddha believed in the theory of transmigration of Soul and Karma, i.e., as you sow, so shall you reap. It is man's actions which make or mar his future. Our past actions have fashioned our present life and our present deeds will fashion our future when we are reborn. No one can escape the consequences of his actions.

(8) *Emphasis on Morality.* Buddha laid great emphasis on leading a moral life. One should be strictly pure in thought, word and deed and lead a virtuous life. He laid down some morals for

his disciples (1) Not to covet others' property, (2) Not to tell lies, (3) Not to kill, (4) Not to drink and use intoxicants, (5) Not to take part in singing and dancing, (6) Not to sleep on comfortable beds, (7) Not to use flowers and perfumes, (8) Not to keep or accept money etc. Thus Buddha laid a practical code of conduct before his disciples and discouraged philosophical speculations which have no hand whatsoever in one's spiritual advancement.

SECTION 6—CAUSES OF THE SPREAD AND FALL OF BUDDHISM

1 Causes of the Rapid Spread of Buddhism. Buddhism spread with a rapid speed in India and beyond, in China, Japan, Burma, Ceylon and other foreign countries. Brief causes of its popularity and rapid spread were the following :—

(1) *Favourable Time.* Buddhism appeared at the time when in India there was a great demand for religious reforms. The common people had become very tired of cruel and bloody sacrifices, costly Yajnas, supremacy of the Brahmans and caste system. So when Buddha raised his voice for reforms the people followed him.

(2) *Magnetic Personality of Buddha.* Buddha possessed a very magnetic personality. He was a living example of all that was good, true and pious and so the people were easily drawn towards him. His simple and pious life had great attraction for the people. He had no difficulty in preaching his new faith among the royal families and getting royal patronage for its rapid spread, for he himself belonged to a royal family.

(3) *Simple Teachings.* The teachings of Buddha were very simple. They had no dogmas and high philosophy and even the simple rustics could understand them. So the common people preferred this new faith to Hinduism which had become too difficult for them to follow.

(4) *Simple Language.* The simple teachings of Buddha coupled with simple language proved a double blessing to the new faith. Buddha preached his new faith in Prakrit, the popular language of the common people rather than in Sanskrit which could be understood by the educated people alone.

(5) *Not very Expensive.* Hindu religion had become very expensive. The Yajnas and other ceremonies were very costly for the poor masses. So they adopted Buddhism which was very inexpensive and was quite easy for them to understand and easy to follow.

(6) *No Caste-system in Buddhism.* In Hinduism caste-system had become very rigid. The people belonging to high castes had begun to hate and maltreat the people of the low castes. So the common people, who were tired of caste distinctions and class

hatredness embraced Buddhism in large number, where all were equal and no one was high-born or an out-caste.

(7) *Missionary Religion.* Buddhism was a missionary faith and every attempt was made by the Bhikshus to preach this religion in India and in far off lands. The Bhikshus were men of high character and great learning and so they created a good influence over the people who flocked to their faith.

(8) *Efforts of the Buddhist Sanghas.* The Buddhist Sanghas proved a powerful means of popularizing Buddhism among the masses. Sanghas helped to plan the work of the Bhikshus systematically and kept a strict watch over their work. It made the propagating machinery of the Buddhists go on running properly and the number of the Buddhists increased day by day.

(9) *Buddhist Councils.* From time to time a few (four) Buddhist councils were called to form an estimate of the various problems concerning Buddhism. These councils tried to remove the defects that had crept in Buddhism and also devised ways to popularize it.

(10) *Universities of Buddhism.* The Ancient Indian Universities like Taxila, Mahabodhi University of Gaya and Nalanda did a lot to propagate the Buddhist faith among its students. In these centres of culture students from various parts of India and from far off lands flocked together to receive higher education and they carried the message of Buddha to their native lands.

(11) *Adapted to the Popular Needs.* Most of the people who embraced Buddhism, soon felt that they could not easily give up the worship of their deities like Rama, Krishna and Indra etc. Buddhism soon responded to the needs of the times and there developed a new school of Buddhism. Mahayanism, which was not so hard for the common people to follow. It was because of these modifications that Buddhism spread in India and many other Asiatic countries.

(12) *State Patronage.* The state patronage that was provided to Buddhism by such rulers as Asoka, Kanishka and Harsha went a long way in making Buddhism a world religion. Asoka followed the teachings of Buddhism. He also got inscribed the main teachings of Buddhism on rocks and pillars and appointed Dharma Mahamatyas to see that people were living strictly according to the principles of Buddhism. Kanishka and Harsha also left no stone unturned to make this religion popular not only in India but also in Burma, Tibet, Ceylon, China and Japan and other countries of the world.

2. **Causes of the Downfall of Buddhism.** Buddhism spread with rapid speed both in this country and in foreign lands, but gradually it became weaker and weaker till it was completely wiped out of the land of its birth. The following causes were responsible for the downfall of Buddhism :—

(1) *Reform in Hinduism* When a large number of Hindus embraced Buddhism, the Brahmans were shaken out of their sleep. They tried to mend themselves. They acknowledged Buddha as one of their 'Avatars' and adopted the theory of Ahimsa. This reformation in Hinduism once again made it popular among the people.

(2) *Corruption in the Buddhist Sanghas.* As the time passed on, the 'Bhikshus' became degenerated, easy-going and even immoral. The accumulation of wealth in the Viharas and the inclusion of the nuns in the Sanghas had a very disastrous effect on the popularity of Buddhism. The people began to hate 'Bhikshus' and lost faith in Buddhism.

(3) *Split in Buddhism* For sometime the Buddhist monks worked unitedly and were guided by the team-spirit, but soon there arose differences in them. It resulted in the division of the Buddhist Sangha in Hinayanism, Mahayanism and 16 other small sects. Consequently the people reverted to their Vedic religion.

(4) *Worship of Buddha as a God* With the passage of time the Buddhists began to make the images of Buddha and worship them. For an ordinary man there was now no visible difference between Hinduism and Buddhism. Gradually a great number of Buddhists got merged in Hinduism and thus Buddhism lost much of its hold on the common mind.

(5) *Hindu Philosophy and Sanskrit in Buddhism.* As the time passed on, Buddhism adopted many philosophical doctrines and complicated ceremonies of Hinduism and the Sanskrit language. It became difficult for the people to understand this religion also and so the people ceased to be attracted by Buddhism.

(6) *Revival of Hinduism* Hinduism regained its importance in the Gupta period when the Brahmans began to be respected and many beautiful temples were constructed. The common people followed the Gupta rulers and began to follow the principles of Hinduism and the worship of Hindu gods. The revival of Hinduism gave a death blow to Buddhism.

(7) *Work of the Hindu Preachers.* In the 8th and 9th centuries some Hindu reformers like Kurmaril Bhatt and Shankaracharya preached the Vedic religion with great zeal. The Buddhists dared not face such great preachers of Hinduism and consequently their faith fell in the estimation of the people.

(8) *Ahimsa opposed and Persecution of the Buddhists* After the death of Asoka the Maurya empire fell like a house of cards. There was great disorder and the people had to face many hardships. For all this they blamed the theory of Ahimsa and began to hate Buddhism. Some Brahman rulers like Pushya Mitra also persecuted the Buddhists. It had an adverse effect on the rising popularity of Buddhism.

(9) *Loss of the Royal Patronage.* After the death of Kanishka Buddhism could not get the royal patronage. Under the Guptas, Buddhism ceased to get that royal support which it used to get under Asoka and Kanishka. The Guptas were the followers of Hinduism, so they did their best to popularize Hinduism. Harsha, no doubt; tried to do something for Buddhism but because of the sudden rise of the Rajputs after him, all his efforts for the revival of Buddhism proved futile.

(10) *The Hun Invasions.* The Hun invasions also had the very disastrous effects on Buddhism. They were nothing more than barbarians. They not only razed the viharas and temples to the ground but also slaughtered the Buddhists in thousands. As a result Buddhism completely vanished from Punjab, N.W.F. Province and Rajasthan.

(11) *Rise of the Rajputs* From the eighth to the eleventh century A.D. the Rajputs were the most powerful people in Northern India. They were war-like people and naturally opposed to the theory of Ahimsa. When they gained power, Buddhism naturally declined.

(12) *The Muslim Invasions.* Last but not the least, the Muslim invasions of India dealt a severe blow to Buddhism. During their raids they slaughtered the Buddhists in large number. Some of them embraced the Muslim faith and some were slaughtered, while others managed to escape in the neighbouring countries like Nepal and Tibet. In this way Buddhism was completely wiped out of India.

SECTION 3—THE BUDDHIST SANGHA, COUNCILS, MAHAYANISM AND HINAYANISM

1. *The Buddhist Sangha* Mahatma Buddha was not only a great reformer but also a great organizer. In order to popularize his own faith he founded Sanghas of missionaries and took a great interest in organizing them on scientific lines. The organization of these Sanghas was more or less on democratic lines. These Sanghas were established in many parts of the country and they rendered a very valuable service to the cause of Buddhism.

Before admission to the Sangha, a man had to renounce the world and leave his family. He had to follow the commandments of Buddha. The monks and nuns spent most part of the year among people and converted them to their faith. Only during three months of the rainy season they retired to their respective places.

These Sanghas were based on certain democratic principles. They had formed their special rules in order to carry on their business. Every assembly had its own chairman called '*Vinayadhara*'

Special clerks kept the record of proceedings. The meetings of these Sanghas were called regularly at fixed intervals *Quorum* (10) was necessary for every meeting. *Resolutions* were introduced in the assembly and discussions were held on them. Efforts were made to pass the resolutions unanimously. But in case of differences *voting system* was also used. Small pieces of wood of various colours were used for this purpose. In this way the Buddhist Sanghas incorporated many democratic principles in their constitutions and tried their utmost to work on those principles.

2 The Buddhist Councils. From time to time four different Councils of the Buddhists were called to celebrate important events or to decide policy matters of great importance

(1) *The First Council* The first council was called in about 487 B.C. on the occasion of Buddha's death at Rajagriha, the Capital of Magadha. About five hundred members came to attend this Council. They collected teachings of Buddha and completed them in three books called Tripitakas. They are in the Pali language and are named as Vinaya Pitaka, Sutta Pitaka and Abhidhamma Pitaka

(2) *The Second Council* It was held in 387 B.C. at Vaishali. In it an effort was made to relax the monastic discipline and to bring about some changes in monastic life. Some reforms and changes were also introduced in the old scriptures.

(3) *The Third Council.* The Third Buddhist Council was held in 251 B.C. during the reign of Asoka at Pataliputra. In this Council some of the internal differences of the monks were patched up and several reforms were introduced in the monastic life with the chief aim of bringing purity in it

(4) *The Fourth Council.* The fourth and the last Council was held during the reign of Kanishka at Kundalvana in Kashmir. It was presided over by Asvaghosa. As a result of this Buddhism was divided into two sects—the Hinayana and the Mahayana. However, on the sacred scriptures of the Buddhists two elaborate commentaries were prepared.

3. The Hinayana and the Mahayana Buddhism For some time after Buddha, the Buddhists remained united but soon some differences arose among them. During the reign of Kanishka these differences became so wide that the Buddhist Sangha was divided into two separate sects—the Hinayana and the Mahayana. The Hinayana was the old sect and the new sect began to be known as the Mahayana

There were many differences between the two sects. (1) The followers of the Mahayana faith began to worship *Buddha as a God* and they even made his idols for worship. But the people belonging to the older faith still regarded Buddha as a pious and a great man and never indulged in idol worship. (2) The former began to lay much *emphasis on faith* while the people of the older faith did

not accept anything, without testing it on the touch-stone of reason (3) The Mahayanists adopted *Sanskrit* and preached in it; while the Hinayanists still preached in Pali (4) In the Mahayana faith much emphasis began to be laid on *worship, prayer and ritualism*, while the people belonging to the older faith still believed in the life of purity and self-denial. (5) The ultimate goal of life for the "*Neo-Buddhists*" was to strive for a place in '*Swarga*' or heaven in place of getting "*Nirvana*". The Hinayanists still believed in the achievement of *Nirvana* as the chief aim of their life (6) The followers of the new faith began to worship the "*Bodhistavas*" along with Buddha. The Bodhistavas were those holy Buddhists who had not yet got *Nirvana* like Buddha but who were proceeding rapidly towards it.

SECTION 4—EFFECTS OF BUDDHISM ON INDIA OR LEGACY OF BUDDHISM

Buddhism, though quite extinct in India at present, has greatly influenced the political, social and cultural life of the Indians.

1. Political Effects (1) Buddhism helped a lot in the maintenance of peace in India for a very long time. Under the influence of the principle of *Ahimsa* many rulers, like Ashoka, gave up the policy of territorial expansion and thus the atmosphere of peace reigned supreme for a very long time. (2) The spread of Buddhism led to the rise of a *vast amount of literature*, which though written from the religious point of view, has helped us in forming an idea of the religious, social and political life of the ancient Indians (3) The rise of Buddhism gave rise to the *feeling of social service* and so a large number of works of public utility began to be patronised by the Indian rulers. Hospitals and drinking places both for men and animals were built, and life in general improved a lot. (4) According to **Havell**, Buddhism by breaking the racial barriers and removing the atmosphere of superstition and obscurity, created a *feeling of political unity* among the people and bound them in close ties. (5) The Buddhist monks preached their faith in India as well as in many foreign lands like Ceylon, Burma, Nepal, Tibet, China and Japan and thus gave rise to the *feeling of world brotherhood* (6) Buddhism also created an evil effect on the Indian polity. Its theory of non-violence or *Ahimsa* killed the *martial spirit of the people* and weakened them. Because of their weakness, the Indians became a prey to foreign attacks and thus lost their independence.

2. Religious Effects. (1) Buddhism started as a reform movement. It exposed the weakness of Hinduism and consequently the Hindus, especially the Brahmans, began to do away with their evils and reform themselves. In this way Buddhism had a *reformatory influence on Hinduism* (2) The Buddhists preached against class-distinctions and caste-hatredness and in this way brought about

unity in the religious field. (3) Buddha had not sanctioned idol-worship but later on his disciples began to make his idols and worship him. The Hindus also followed the Buddhists and made some very beautiful statues and idols of their own deities and began to worship them. In this way Buddhism gave rise to idol-worship in India. (4) The Aryans used to worship their nature gods in open air, but when the Buddhists began to make beautiful temples to worship Buddha and Buddhistas, the Hindus did not lag behind and constructed their own temples to revere their gods. (5) According to Dr. V A Smith, "The continuous discussions between the Hindus and Buddhists gave rise to the various cults of Bhakti."

3. Social Effects. (1) Buddhism was against all sorts of caste-distinctions and stood for a common brotherhood. Thus Buddhism brought about *unity of Indian Society*. (2) It also led to the *rise of sub-castes in Hinduism*. When many Buddhists later on re-embraced Hinduism they formed their own castes and sub-castes and thus gave rise to a large number of new castes and sub-castes in Hinduism. (3) The Hindus relished meat and indulged in hunting but under the influence of Buddhism a large number of them gave up their habits and became vegetarians. (4) *The theory of Ahimsa*, which is so popular in India today, is largely the contribution of Buddhism to India.

4. Cultural Effects. Besides influencing the Indian politics and society, Buddhism also contributed a lot to the Indian culture. (1) The contribution of Buddhism to the *field of art* are a great many. The Buddhists built a large number of Viharas, Stupas, Monastries, etc. They made a large number of statues, pillars and what not. The pillars erected by Asoka, still excite our curiosity. Under Kanishka the Gandharva School of Art made a rapid progress and some very beautiful statues of Buddha were erected by this school. (2) In the *field of literature* the contribution of Buddhism is not less important. A large number of books dealing with Buddhism were written in Prakrit, the popular language of the people. These books are an invaluable treasure of Indian literature. (3) A large number of Buddhist missionaries went to foreign countries and spread the faith of Lord Buddha in those lands. They, side by side, increased the cultural as well as economic intercourse of India with many Asiatic countries. In this way Buddhism led to the spread of *Indian culture outside India*.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION I—Life and Teachings of Lord Buddha

(1) **Life of Mahatma Buddha.** Early Life—born in 567 B C; The Great Renunciation in 537 B C, Attainment of highest knowledge in 532 B C., Preaching work and death.

(2) **Teachings of Lord Buddha** (1) Four noble truths and eight-fold path (2) Ahimsa (3) Silence over the existence of God. (4) No faith in Yajna, sacrifice and ritualism (5) No faith in the caste-system. (6) Nirvana. (7) Karma theory (8) Emphasis on morality.

SECTION 2—Rise and Fall of Buddhism

Causes of the Rapid Spread of Buddhism. (1) Favourable Times (2) Magnetic Personality of Buddha. (3) Simple teachings. (4) Simple language. (5) Not very expensive. (6) No caste-system. (7) Missionary Religion. (8) Efforts of Buddhist Sanghas (9) Buddhism Councils (10) University of Buddhism. (11) Adapted to the popular needs. (12) State Patronage

Causes of the Downfall of Buddhism. (1) Reform in Hinduism. (2) Corruption in the Buddhist Sanghas. (3) Split in Buddhism (4) Worship of Buddha as a God. (5) Hindu Philosophy and Sanskrit in Buddhism (6) Revival of Hinduism (7) Work of Hindu Preachers (8) Ahimsa opposed and persecution of the Buddhists. (9) Loss of Royal Patronage. (10) The Hun Invasions. (11) Rise of the Rajputs. (12) The Muslim Invasions.

SECTION 3—Buddhist Sanghas, Buddhist Councils and Hinayana and Mahayana

(1) **Buddhist Sanghas.** Organised on democratic lines, Admission, Chairman, Rules of business, Quorum, Voting system.

(2) **Buddhist Councils.** First Council at Rajagriha in 487 B.C, Second Council at Vaishali in 387 B.C, Third Council in 251 B.C, at Pataliputra during the reign of Asoka, Fourth Council in Kashmir during the reign of Kanishka.

(3) **Hinayana and Mahayana.** Division of Buddhism in these two sects during the reign of Kanishka. (1) Mahayanists worshipped Buddha as a God, the Hinayanists regarded him as a great man. (2) Mahayanists laid emphasis on faith. Hinayana on reason. (3) Mahayana used Sanskrit but Hinayana used Pali. (4) Mahayana emphasised prayer, worship and ritualism, Hinayana on pure life. (5) The Mahayanists tried to have a place in swarga but the Hinayanists tried for Nirvana. (6) The Mahayanists worshipped Bodhistavas also but the Hinayanists did not

SECTION 4—Effects of Buddhism on India or Legacy of Buddhism

Effects of Buddhism. (1) *Political Effects.* Maintenance of peace, historical literature of great value, social service rendered by Indian rulers, creating the feeling of political unity, feeling of world brother-hood, killed the martial spirit.

(2) *Religious Effects* Reformatory influence on Hinduism, unity in the religious field, bringing idol-worship, construction of beautiful temples, rise of the Bhakti-cult

(3) *Social Effects* Unity in the Indian Society, rise of the castes and sub-castes, vegetarianism, theory of Ahimsa.

(4) *Cultural Effects.* Contribution to art, encouraged literature, helped in spreading Indian culture outside India.

University and other Important Questions

1. Give the chief teachings of Buddha. How far did they influence Indian Society ? (C.B.S.E., 1959, 66, 68)
 2. What causes do you give for the rise and decline of Buddhism ? (C.B.S.E., 1963)
 3. Why did Buddhism lose its hold in India ? (C.B.S.E., 1970)
 4. What were the teachings of Gautama Buddha ? Account for the spread of Buddhism in and outside India ? (B.U., 1957)
 5. Describe the birth and advance of Buddhism. (B.U., 1960)
 6. Write briefly on the contribution of Buddha to Religion. (B.U., 1965)
 7. Write briefly on the origin and expansion of Buddhism. (B.U., 1966)
 8. Trace briefly the rise and growth of Buddhism in India (B.U., 1967)
 9. Explain the influence of Buddhism in the ancient world (B.U., 1971)
 10. What are the contributions of Buddhism to the political, social and cultural life of India ?
 11. What factors were responsible for the popularity of Buddhism ? (C.B.S.E., 1971)
 12. Write ten lines on each of the following :—
 - (i) The Buddhist Sangha ;
 - (ii) Teachings of Buddha , (B.U., 1963 65)
 - (iii) Eight-Fold Path,
 - (iv) The Hinayana and the Mahayana ;
 - (v) Contribution of Buddhism to culture.
 13. Name the following :—
 - (i) Two sects of Buddhism. (1) .. (2) ..
 - (ii) Four Great Truths. (1) (2) (3)
(4)
 - (iii) Two kings who helped in the propagation of Buddhism. (1)
(2)
 - (iv) Two universities of Buddhism. (1) (2) ..
 - (v) Two countries where Buddhism was preached. (1)..... (2)
 - (vi) Two sects of Jainism (1) .. (2) ..
 - (vii) Four important scholars of the Gupta period. (1) (2)
(3) (4) ..
 14. Fill in the blanks :—
 - (i) Buddha was born at in B.C
 - (ii) Name of Buddha's father was ..
 - (iii) Buddha got knowledge at.
 - (iv) Buddha gave his first sermon at ..
 - (v) made Buddhism a world religion.
 15. Answer in 'Yes' or 'No' :—
 - (i) Was Buddhist literature written in Hindi ?
 - (ii) Did Buddha believe in idol-worship ?
 - (iii) Was the Buddhist literature written in the Pali language ?
 - (iv) Did the followers of Mahayana regard Buddha as a god ?
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Rise and Spread of Christianity

SECTION 1—JESUS CHRIST

1. **Life History of Jesus Christ.** The foundation of Christianity is the greatest event in the history of the world. It was



Jesus Christ

founded by Jesus Christ. He was born at Bethlehem a city in the province of Judea in Palestine, which was at that time under the Roman Empire. It is generally believed that he was born on December 25, 4 B.C. in a stable. His father was Joseph and his mother was Mary. It is generally said that Mary was Virgin Mother and Joseph was the foster-father. His parents were people of humble position, though his father is said to have been descended from David, the king of the Jews. At the time of the birth of Jesus, Herod was the king of Judea and Augustus was the emperor of the Roman Empire. Because of economic hardships, his father had to work as a carpenter. Jesus helped his father in his work. After

some time he shifted to Nazareth with his father. He did not receive formal education in any school yet he was very wise and took great interest in religious and spiritual matters. He studied the teachings of the Hebrew philosophers and the ideals of Buddha and Confucius. At the age of 30 Jesus was baptised by John and he proclaimed that he was Messiah who would set up kingdom of Heaven on earth. When John was killed by king Herod, Jesus openly proclaimed himself Messiah and began to preach his faith with greater zeal.

2. **His Preaching Work** The Jews were very orthodox and believed in many superstitions at the time when Jesus started the preaching of his ideals. The Jews thought that they were "*the chosen People of God*." They attached great importance to wealth and tried to lead a happy and prosperous life. They were cruel,

greedy and proud) The rich were self-centred and self-seekers and exploited the poor for their own selfish ends (Palestine was at that time a province of the Roman Empire. The Roman Emperors forced the people to worship them as gods in the temples. The ritualism was in vogue and the Jews were often persecuted. The Jews believed that Messiah, son of God would be born who would bring about the economic and political uplift of the Jews. The teachings and preaching of Jesus attracted a large number of people and they thought that their Messiah had come to redeem mankind. Jesus had 12 intimate disciples or the Apostles and 72 other followers who helped him in the preaching work. Once he attended the Pass-over Festival in the Jewish Temple at Jerusalem. He was filled with rage when he saw the merchants and the priests making money by selling the sacrificial doves over and over again. A large crowd of the Jews gathered there and he succeeded in saving the life of the doves.

3. **Opposition of the Jews, Clergymen and the Rich People.** (Jesus raised his voice against the priests and the rich people who had turned the temple of God into a house of Mammon (i.e., God of riches). His teachings were, however, disliked by the interested people.) The central idea of his teachings was God is the loving Father of all human beings and all men are brothers and all are equal in the kingdom of God. (The priests and their friends, however, objected to his idea of kingdom of God in which every sincere person could be included.) Another thing which annoyed them was that Jesus taught that true religion consisted in behaving in a brotherly way to all and not merely in performing ceremonies and observing rules laid down in the holy books. Sometimes he directly opposed the commands of the Jewish Law. (Jesus claimed that he was the Messiah and had come to rescue them and lead them to their glorious destiny. At this proclamation the priests and the orthodox Jews became furious. Once he proclaimed that it is easier for a camel to pass through the eye of a needle than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God. He therefore advised the rich people to distribute their wealth among the poor.)

4. **Death of Christ** (Such teachings and ideals of Jesus were greatly opposed by the orthodox Jews, the priests and the rich people because of their selfish interests.) They, therefore, decided to destroy him. (They instigated the Roman Procurator that Jesus was trying to set up the people against the Roman government and make himself a ruler. He was charged with blasphemy by the priests because he had proclaimed himself as a Messiah. The government charged him with high treason as he called himself the king of the Jews.) At this Jesus went to the Mount of Olive with 12 Apostles. One of his Apostle named Judas, however, betrayed him, accepted 30 pieces of silver from the government and helped it to arrest Jesus in the Garden of Gethsemane. He was charged of high treason against the Roman Empire. Though the Roman Governor of Pilate, found him innocent yet he had to punish him to please the priests and the orthodox Jews. He was crowned with a

wreath of thorns and beaten with whips. The Roman soldiers jeered and scoffed at him. He was hung on the cross for three terrible hours and left to bleed to death. In this way Jesus was crucified and killed on the hill of Galgotha overlooking Jerusalem on Friday, in 27th A.D. at the age of 33. This day is celebrated as 'Good Friday' by the Christians even upto this day. At the time of his death he is said to have uttered these words, "*Father forgive them, for they know not what they do.*"

At his death his Apostles as well as his followers were greatly disappointed for they believed that he would be able to defy even death by means of his divine powers, because they had seen him performing miracles such as restoring sight to the blind, hearing to the deaf, speech to the dumb and life to the dead. Then a wonderful thing is said to have happened. It is said that three days after his death (i.e. on Sunday) the tomb in which his body had been placed was found empty and some of his disciples actually saw him alive, moving and talking to them. He advised them not to be discouraged for he would be with them in spirit if not in bodily form. It is believed that he allowed himself to be crucified to save mankind. His followers were now convinced that he was really a Messiah. This event is known as the '*Resurrection*' in the history of the world and this Sunday is celebrated as the Easter Sunday, a day of joy and hope and happiness.

SECTION 2—MAIN TEACHINGS OF JESUS CHRIST OR MAIN PRINCIPLES OF CHRISTIANITY

The teachings of Jesus Christ are contained in the Four Gospels of his disciples Mathew, Mark, Luke and John. They form a part of the New Testament though the Christians accepted the Old Testament of the Jews also. His teachings were very simple, brief, clear and effective. He believed in the fatherhood of God and brotherhood of man. He laid great emphasis on good deeds and noble character. He preached the gospel of love, non-violence, repentance, confession and right living. We can form an idea of his teachings from his *Sermon on the Mount* which runs as under :—

"Blessed are the poor in spirits, for theirs is the kingdom of Heaven.

Blessed are they that mourn; for they shall be comforted.

Blessed are the meek; for they shall inherit the earth.

Blessed are they who do hunger and thirst after righteousness; for they shall be filled.

Blessed are the merciful; for they shall obtain mercy.

Blessed are the pure in heart; for they shall see God.

Blessed are the peace-makers; for they shall be called the children of God.

Blessed are they who are persecuted for righteousness sake ; for theirs is the kingdom of Heaven."

His main teachings or the main principles of Christianity are the following :—

(1) God is one, though he consists of three persons, God Father in Heaven, God son Jesus and Holy Ghost in Virgin Mary. We should worship God alone. He said "*Thou shalt love the Lord, thy God with all thy heart, with all thy soul and with all thy mind*"

(2) God created the first couple Adam and Eve. They enjoyed the Forbidden Apple and raised barrier between God and His creation

(3) God son i.e. Jesus came down from Heaven and was incarnated by the Holy Ghost of Virgin Mary.

(4) Jesus was crucified to atone the sins of Adam, Eve and their desendents

(5) God is kind, loving and merciful. He loves all his children alike. Everyone can reach the God. He forgives even the sinner if he repents for his sins and evil deeds

(6) We should love mankind. To love man is to love God. Service of man is the service of God. He used to say, "*Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.*"

(7) Kingdom of Heaven is full of love, co-operation, truth '*Ahimsa*' etc. Every sincere person would be included in it. There is no distinction of caste and creed and high and low in it. Only the men of noble character and good deeds can reach there. The persons who are greedy of wealth cannot enter this kingdom. He openly proclaimed, "*Children, how hard it is for them, who trust in riches, to enter into the kingdom of God*".

(8) Hate the sin and not the sinner. A sinner can become virtuous by reforming his deeds and character.

(9) Man must leave all worldly desires, attachment and pride. He should not amass wealth

(10) Jesus laid stress on such virtues as love, justice and duty. "*Do unto others as you would have them do unto you*".

(11) One must love and forgive one's enemies as Lord Jesus himself did. He said, "*Love your enemies, bless them that curse you, do good to them that hate you, and pray for them which despitefully use you, and persecute you ; that you may be the children of your Father which is in Heaven ; for He maketh his sun to rise on the evil and on the good, and sendeth rain on the just and on the unjust.*"

(12) Jesus is the Messiah or son of God. One must have belief in Resurrection. Everyman is punished or rewarded according to his deeds and action on the third day after his death

From the above description it is quite clear that the teachings of Jesus were quite simple to follow. There was no place for show, useless ceremonies and rituals. That is why it spread very rapidly after his death and became a world religion.

SECTION 3—SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY AND ITS CAUSES

Spread of Christianity After the death of Jesus his twelve Apostles preached his teachings at Jerusalem, Judea, Galilee, Asia Minor and Egypt etc. The early followers of this religion were Jews, especially those who belonged to the poor class of people.

(1) *St Paul and His Work.* St. Paul was responsible for the rapid spread and popularity of this religion. His real name was Saul. He was a Roman citizen though he was a Jew. He belonged to the city of Tarsus in Asia Minor. He was well-versed in Greek and Roman culture. He went to Jerusalem to study the Jewish law. He was shocked to learn that the followers of Jesus were trying to spread ideas which seemed to be against the Jewish Law. So he was opposed to this religion and did his best to suppress it. He left for the city of Damascus, in Syria, to carry on the persecution of the followers of Jesus. It is said that he became blind by an intense flash of light. Jesus Christ restored his eye-sight and told him that God had chosen him to carry the message of Jesus to the non-Jews. Thereafter he became the staunch follower of Jesus and began to spread his teachings. He carried the message of Jesus to his own people at Tarsus. Then he went to most of the chief cities of Asia Minor and Greece and established Churches at Antioch, Ephesus, Corinth, Athens and Philippi. He was the first person to use the word 'Christian' for the followers of Jesus and proclaimed that Christianity was a religion for all men. He had to face bitter opposition and bear great sufferings during the course of his preachings but he carried on his work with great missionary zeal. As a result the number of his followers went on increasing in the Roman Empire. At last the Roman Emperor, Nero, who was deadly opposed to this religion, persecuted St. Paul. He was sentenced to death in 69 A.D. About Paul's work in the spread of Christianity, it has been rightly remarked, "*St Paul had carried the gospel of Jesus to many communities and even to the gates of Caesar's palace, the very heart of the Roman Empire.*"

(2) *Roman Emperors and Christianity.* The Christians were hated by the Romans and the Roman Emperors, because they refused to worship the emperor as a God and to bow before him. Also they were against the Roman festivals and their sports such as Chariot-races and gladiatorial shows. So Christianity was dangerous to the Roman power. The rich and the higher class opposed it because they thought it to be the religion of the low classes. They (Christians) were considered as unloyal and unpatriotic. When a great fire broke out in Rome during the reign of

Nero in 62 A.D. he held the Christians responsible for it. So he killed St. Paul and persecuted his followers. The unfortunate Christians were nailed to crosses, burnt alive or thrown to the wild animals in the amphitheatre. Many Christians were also persecuted cruelly during the reign of *Marcus Aurelius*. *Diocletian* (284—305 A.D.) removed the Christians from the army and public offices, burnt their churches and refused to free the Christian slaves. But all such rules failed to exterminate the Christians and Christianity and the blood of the martyrs became the cement of the Church.

(With the passage of time this religion became popular and the number of its followers went on increasing. In 311 A.D. the emperor *Galerius Constantine* issued the "Edict of Toleration" and recognized Christianity in order to avoid political troubles and fatal diseases. It is said that once Emperor *Constantine* was going to the battle-field. He saw the sign of a cross in the sky. He won a victory in the battle-field so by 'Edict of Milan' he declared Christianity as the state religion. He granted freedom of worship to the Christians and removed many legal disabilities imposed on them. This helped Christianity to change from a religion of the poor and humble into a religion of the rich and the powerful also. Under *Theodosius I* (379—395), Christianity became the only religion recognized by the state. Rome became the centre of preaching of Christianity. Later on when even the Roman Emperors fell, the Church remained a unifying and civilising force. Rome which was once the seat of the Roman Emperor is now occupied by the Pope, the head of the Christian Church.)

✓ 2 **Causes of the Spread of Christianity.** Christianity is one of the most important and leading religions of the world today. The number of its followers is the largest in the world. The following causes were responsible for its popularity —

(1) *Personality of Christ* Jesus was a man of great and charming personality. He had a sweet tongue and his way of speaking was both very impressive and attractive. His simple and pure life and his simple, brief, clear and effective teachings had a great effect on the masses.

(2) *Company of Poor and Down-trodden People.* Jesus had a great love and sympathy for the poor and he spent much of his time with the down-trodden who needed him the most. It is said that he could cure the deaf-dumb and many other patients with his simple touch. So this religion had a special appeal for the poor and slaves who had no hope in the world.

(3) *No Condemnation of any Religion.* Jesus never condemned or criticized any other religion. So the people were convinced of the superiority of this religion and embraced it in large number.

(4) *Harred toward None* This religion emphasised on justice, love, duty and goodness. It taught to love even the enemies, to bless

those who cursed, to do good to those who hated and to pray even for those who persecuted. The greatness of this religion accounted for its popularity.

(5) *Sacrifice by the Followers of Christ.* The Apostles and the followers of Jesus never gave up the task of preaching though they were persecuted and had to undergo great sufferings and hardships. Peter introduced Christianity in Rome while Paul spread it in many cities like Antioch, Jerusalem, Corinth, Athens and Philippi etc. They were persecuted by the Roman Emperors. Many of Christ's followers were burnt alive. But they never felt disheartened and carried on their missionary work with great zeal and enthusiasm.

(6) *Sacrifice of Christ and his last Sermon.* Jesus was crucified in a very cruel way, but he died smilingly. It had great effect on his disciples. At the time of his death he prayed to God to forgive these cruel people because they did not know what they were doing. His sacrifice speaks of his greatness. It went a long way in encouraging his disciples and infused new enthusiasm in them.

(7) *Co-operation of the Roman Emperors.* In the beginning some of the Roman Emperors persecuted the Christians but the Emperor Constantine declared it a state religion and granted freedom of worship to Christians. Later on under Theodosius it became the only religion recognized by the state. As a result the people of the upper class also embraced it and Rome became the centre of its activity.

(8) *Co operation through Churches.* Churches were set up at many places to spread Christianity and to organize its followers. Prayers were held and Bible was read in them. The priests who were the incharges of these Churches were men of high moral character, noble ideals and devoted followers of Christianity. Their influence popularized this religion.

(9) *Peace and Order in the Roman Empire.* Due to the efforts of the Roman Emperors there was peace and order in the Roman Empire. It helped the Christian missionaries to propagate the teachings of Jesus without any difficulty.

(10) *Greek Language.* People in the most parts of the Roman Empire understood the Greek language. The New Testament was also written in Greek. Most of the preachers knew this language. Hence Greek language contributed a lot towards the spread of Christianity in the Roman Empire.

(11) *Some Miracles.* Some of the miracles performed by Jesus had great effect on the people. It is said he restored sight to the blind, hearing to the deaf, speech to the dumb and life to the dead. According to New Testament, once he fed about 5000 persons with five loaves of bread and two fish only. People thought he was Messiah and would establish the kingdom of God on earth.

SECTION 3 :—CHURCH ORGANISATION, SACRAMENTS OF CHRISTIANITY AND EFFECTS OF CHRISTIANITY

(a) **Church Organization** First Christian Church was established after the Resurrection at Jerusalem. St Paul set up churches at various cities like Antioch, Corinth, Athens, Phillipi etc. As Christianity spread and the number of its followers increased, a large number of honest, devoted and disciplined persons came forward who devoted their whole time to organize the Christians. Such officials of the Churches were known as Elders, Presbyters, Bishops or Overseers. Besides preachings and conducting prayers, they administered the sacraments, gave education to the people, collected offerings for the church from 'Diocese' under the charge of a bishop. Many 'Dioceses' were placed under an Archbishop. There was a Patriarch over several Archbishops. With the passage of time the importance of Patriarch of Rome was much increased and he began to be called a Pope. All the churches were put under his charge. St. Peter was the first Pope of Rome.)

(b) **Sacraments of Christianity.** As time passed on Christians began to observe certain ceremonies known as 'Sacraments'. They observed the following seven sacraments :—

(1) *Baptism* By this ceremony a person became a Christian. It relieved him of all the sins of his previous birth.

(2) *Confirmation.* By this sacrament the Christians re-affirmed their faith in Christianity.

(3) *Matrimony.* It was observed at the time of marriage and a man and women were spiritually wed.

(4) *Confession.* According to this ceremony a man confessed his sins.

(5) *Penance.* It was performed when a Christian repented for his sins.

(6) *Unction* It was observed to absolve a person of his sins.

(7) *Ordination* A Christian became a priest by this sacrament.

(c) **Effects of Christianity.** (1) As Christianity spread in the various parts of the Roman Empire, the Romans adopted many customs of the Christians. They performed Christian ceremonies at the time of birth, marriage and death. Sundays were observed as imperial holidays. (2) Christianity laid great stress on honesty, simplicity and dignity of labour for Jesus led a simple and pure life and worked as a carpenter. (3) Christianity believed in the brotherhood and equality of man. Slavery was quite contrary to the teachings of this religion. Though it could not be abolished at the very outset but the Christians always raised their voice against it and tried for the freedom of the slaves. With the spread of Christianity many evils, vices and cruel sports such as gladiatorial fights came to an end. (5) Family was the centre of religious and

moral life among the Christians. This increased the importance of family and woman in the society. (6) Christian missionaries did much useful social and educational work besides preaching the ideals of Jesus. They opened a large number of educational institutions, hospitals and orphanages etc. (7) Christianity gave impetus to Greek and Latin literature. St. Augustine, the Bishop of Hippo wrote his famous books i.e. the "City of God" and the "Confession". He also translated Bible from Greek and Hebrew into Latin. Ambrose, the Bishop of Milan, wrote many Latin hymns which are sung in Churches even today. Eusebius was the author of "Chronicle" and "Life of Constantine". Christianity enriched Latin and Greek literatures. (8) Christianity gave new impetus to Roman architecture. St. Peter's Church in Rome, St. Sophia in Constantinople, big monasteries and other structures are the best examples of Roman architecture, which were influenced by Christianity. Arts of sculpture and painting got a new lease of life. The Roman sculptors and painters got their themes and subjects from Christianity.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Rise and Spread of christianity

(1) *Early Life of Jesus Christ* Born at Bethlehem in 4 B.C., Worked as a carpenter; Interest in spiritual matters; Baptised by John at the age of 30, Divine knowledge and proclaimed himself as Messiah.

(2) *Preaching of Religion.* Jews were superstitious, Exploitation of the poor by the rich; Persecutions of the Jews by Roman Emperors; Jews attracted towards Jesus; His acts at the Feast of Pass over.

(3) *Opposition of Clergymen and Rich People.* Opposition of futile ceremonies, Stress on equality in the kingdom of God angered the priests and the rich.

(4) *His Death.* At the instigation of the priests the government crucified him in 29 A.D. on Friday. Resurrection on the third day.

SECTION 2 :—Main Teachings of Jesus

(1) God is one. (2) Creation of Adam and Eve; (3) Jesus as God's son, (4) Crucification of Jesus (5); God is kind; (6) Love of mankind. (7) Kingdom of Heaven, (8) Hate the sin not the sinner; (9) No worldly desires; (10) Stress on virtues of love, justice and duty. (11) Love for enemies; (12) Jesus is Messiah.

SECTION 3 :—Spread of Christianity and its Causes

1 *Spread of Christianity* (1) St. Paul and his work—opposed Christianity in the beginning; Staunch supporter afterwards. Preached Christianity. Set up churches at various cities; Persecution by Nero in 62 B.C.; (2) Roman Emperors and Christianity—Emperors like Nero, Aurelius Diocletian were opposed

to Christianity and persecuted the Christians ; Constantine made it state religion , Rich people adopted it later on , Rome became centre of this religion.

2. Causes of the Spread of Christianity. (1) Personality of Christ, (2) Company of the poor and down trodden; (3) No Condemnation of any religion , (4) Hatred towards none : (5) Sacrifice by the followers of Jesus , (6) Sacrifice by Christ and his last sermon ; (7) Co-operation of the Roman Emperors ; (8) Co-operation brought through churches; (9) Peace and order in the Roman Empire ; (10) Greek language , (11) Some Miracles.

SECTION 3 :—Organization of Church, Sacraments of Christianity, Effects of Christianity

1. Organization of Church. Need for organisation; Churches under Priests; Diocese under Bishop ; Archbishop, Patriarch and Pope.

2. Sacraments of Christianity. Baptism ; Confirmation Matrimony , Confession , Penance , Unction and Ordination

3 Effects of Christianity. The Romans adopted Christian customs , Dignity of labour, Efforts to abolish slavery, End of Vices, and cruel sports , Importance of family and women , Social and educational work; Encouragement to literature and art.

University and other Important Questions

1. Trace the rise and spread of Christianity.
2. Briefly outline the teachings of Jesus Christ and account for the spread of Christianity. (B U , 1957, 59, 60, 63)
3. Give an account of the origin of Christianity and examine the causes which led to its growth in its early centuries. (B U , 1968)
4. Review briefly the early history of Christianity. (U.U , 1963)
5. Explain the influence of Christianity on the civilization of the world.
6. Write ten lines on the following :—
 - (1) Life of Jesus Christ.
 - (2) Main teachings of Jesus Christ
 - (3) Reasons for the spread of Christianity.
 - (4) St Paul.
 - (5) Behaviour of the Roman Kings towards Christianity.
7. Fill in the blanks .—
 - (1) Jesus Christ was born in....
 - (2) ... was the father of Jesus and ... was his mother.
 - (3) Jesus started ... at the age of 30 years
 - (4) In the beginning Jesus had ... Apostles
 - (5) Jesus Christ died in ...
 - (6) ... is the holy book of the Christians.
 - (7) Roman Emperor ... made Christianity the state religion.
8. Answer in 'Yes' or 'No' :—
 - (1) Was Jesus Christ crucified ?
 - (2) Was St. Paul the first after Jesus to sacrifice everything ?
 - (3) Was St Paul the first Pope ?
 - (4) Did the churches decide the cases ?
 - (5) Did the Christians believe in gods ?

Rise and Spread of Islam

SECTION 1—ARABIA AND BIRTH OF MOHAMMED

1. **Arabia before the Rise of Islam.** Islam, which is now one of the greatest religions of the world, took its birth in Arabia towards the beginning of the 7th Century A D. Its founder was Prophet Mohammed. The Arabian peninsula lies between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. Much of it is a desert and waste land. Along the coast of the Red Sea there are, however, fertile stretches of land. Trade was carried on there in large scale and two cities, and Mecca Medina, grew up near the coast.

The Arabs were a Semitic people and spoke the Semitic language. The Arabs had divided themselves into so many tribes. Each tribe was controlled by the tribal chief. These tribes often led a nomadic life. Often they roamed from one place to another in search of water and grass for their flocks. There was no central government in Arabia and the tribes often fought with one another. They plundered the caravans of traders. There was no peace and order in Arabia. The Arabs were idol-worshippers and believed in many gods. There was a big stone building known as *Kaaba* at Mecca. It contained a huge block of stone. The Arabs believed that it had come from the heaven. Mecca was a place of pilgrimage for the Arabs. Kaaba was the only uniting factor among the Arab tribes. An annual convention was held in Mecca to worship at the Kaaba. There were four months in a year during which they forgot their warfare and came to worship the idol at Mecca. In the words of Dr. Ishwari Prashad, "*They were addicted to drinking and gambling and practised polygamy. They had many cruel customs among which the most inhuman was the burning alive of female children. They had no code of morality to guide their conduct and cruelty, exacted vengeance from those who wronged them or their tribes.*" Their treatment with their women and slaves was also not good. Ignorance prevailed all around. The common people cherished many blind faiths and indulged in many primitive practices.

2. Life of Mohammed—

(1) *Early Life* Prophet Mohammed, the founder of Islam, was born in 570 A D in one of these Arabian tribes, namely the

Qureshi tribe This tribe was the custodian of Kaaba Shrine at Mecca. Early life of Mohammed was, however, not so happy. His father died even before he was born and his mother left this world, when he was hardly six years of age. He was then brought up by his uncle who was a merchant. Sometimes, he was busy in tending the flocks of sheep, but generally he helped his uncle in his business. At the age of 25 he got an employment with a rich widow named Khadija. He, by his hard work and honesty, impressed his mistress so much that she at once offered to marry him, though she herself was forty at that time. Mohammed married her and had several children by her.

(2) *Becoming a Prophet* Mohammed Sahib was a spiritual type of man from the very beginning. Even his marriage did not prevent him from meditation and prayers. During his travels he came in contact with the Jews and Christians and was very much impressed by their monotheism. He hated idolatry and was always busy thinking some way out of the ignorance into which his countrymen had fallen. He often went to Mount Hira, near the city of Mecca, and spent long hours in meditation and prayers. It is said that one day, when he was meditating, light dawned on him and God asked him to spread the true faith among the people. This revelation provided a turning point in the life of Mohammed Sahib.

(3) *'Hijrat' to Medina* He now made up his mind to spread his new faith and to reform the miserable condition of his fellow-men. He openly condemned idol-worship and preached against all sorts of superstitions. By doing so he turned all his own tribesmen against him because they mostly lived on the income derived from Kaaba which contained more than three hundred idols. His preachings against idolatry meant loss of livelihood for his relatives, which they could never tolerate. Consequently, Mohammed was abused, stoned and even attempts were made to kill him. Finding his position in Mecca very insecure he shifted to Medina on 2nd July, 622 A.D. His shifting to Medina is popularly known as "*Hijrat*" in the history of Islam and the "*Hijri Era*", of the Muslims starts from this very date, i.e., 2nd July, 622 A.D.

(4) *Mohammed's Success and Death* In Medina Mohammed Sahib was, however, welcomed and gradually he won over a large number of followers to Islam. He gained so much influence and power at Medina that all the attempts of his rivals to put obstacles in his way proved futile. In about 630 A.D. he, along with his followers, invaded and conquered Mecca. Thereafter he completely destroyed the power of the Qureshi tribe. He asked the people to give up idol-worship and have faith in the Almighty God i.e. "*Allah*". He ceaselessly continued preaching his faith among the people and won a large number of followers. In 632 A.D. he fell ill and soon died on 8th June, 632 A.D. But before his death he had converted the whole of Arabia to his new faith, i.e., Islam.

SECTION 2—TEACHINGS OF MOHAMMED OR PRINCIPLES OF ISLAM

Mohammed himself did not put down his teachings in a written form. His teachings, preachings and sayings were conveyed by him to his followers from time to time during his discourses. They were considered as God-given by his followers. After his death his disciples compiled them into a volume, which came to be known as the *Koran*. It is considered as the holy book of the Muslims and they call it their Bible. It contains prayers and stories and is written in the poetic style. The teachings of Mohammed form the chief principles of Islam. Some of the main teachings or principles of Islam are as follows :—

(1) God is one and only power and He alone is worthy of adoration. "*There is no God but Allah and Mohammed is his Prophet.*" God is all-powerful, all-wise and all-merciful. "*There is one God, not many gods, as the Pagans said.*"

(2) Idol-worship is a curse and everybody should shirk doing it. His monotheism is very much similar to that of the Jews and Christians

(3) "*Koran is a Divine book and its authority is unquestionable*" The sayings of Mohammed are regarded as God-given and were compiled in the form of holy book i.e., the *Koran*.

(4) Islam believes in life after death, in heaven or in hell. "*There will be a Day of Judgement, when everybody will be punished or rewarded according to his deeds.*" "*Eternal damnation and fiery torments await the faithless and the doers of evil in hell, and eternal happiness is promised to the righteous and faithful.*" The sinners will go to hell and suffer many hardships. The good and the faithful will go to heaven where they will be served by beautiful damsels having cheeks like moon, eyes like pearls and lips like sugar candy. Happiness in the heaven consists of physical pleasure and is very much akin to the belief of the Christians.

(5) *All men are equal* and there is no question of superiority or inferiority. Mohammed preached the principles of equality and brotherhood. In his faith there was no distinction of any sort whatsoever and so there was no class hatredness among his followers. This single factor proved a very potent factor in the popularity of Islam.

(6) The Prophet enjoined upon his followers to perform the five duties of '*Kalima*', '*Namaz*', '*Zagqat*', '*Ramzun*' and '*Haj*' very faithfully. '*Kalima*' implies certain hymns proclaiming the unity of God and faith in the mission of Mohammed. '*Namaz*' or prayer is very necessary for every Muslim. He is expected to say five prayers a day at the set intervals. Then he should practise '*Zagqat*' or charity and give alms to the poor and the needy. He should keep fasts during the month of '*Ramzan*'. This is regarded as the most pious duty for every Muslim. '*Haj*' or pilgrimage to Mecca is also regarded as a sacred duty of every believer.

(7) Mohammed allowed his followers to *keep slaves* but at the same time asked them to treat them most kindly and leniently.

(8) He was not in favour of giving *high status to women* in the society and allowing them full liberty. They should live in '*harems*' and not move about freely. They should practise the '*pardah*' system. But Mohammed was in favour of treating women very kindly.

(9) Mohammed laid great stress on morality like Christianity and Judaism. He taught his followers to abstain from drinking, gambling, taking flesh of pig, charging interest on loans etc. He taught them to honour the parents and to do justice to all persons. Comparing Islam with Christianity, one writer thus puts it "*Mohammed's code embodies the ten commandments of Judaism; and in certain respects it resembles Christian ethics especially in its emphasis on the duty of forgiving injuries instead of avenging them. But his code is less elevating than Christ's. It allows polygamy and bids its followers to spread Islam by the sword*".

SECTION 3—SPREAD OF ISLAM AND ITS CAUSES

1. **The Spread of Islam.** During Mohammed's life-time Islam had spread in the whole of Arabia. His place was first taken by the Caliphs of the Omayyid dynasty, 632-749 A.D., and then by the Caliphs of the Abbasid dynasty (749-1236 A.D.). Under them Islam spread widely

Under the first four Caliphs or '*Khalifas*'—Abu Bakr, Omar, Osman and Ali—of the Omayyid dynasty, the Islam religion penetrated into many parts of the world. The Arabs over-ran the whole of Syria, Mesopotamia, Egypt and Persia and also extended their empire upto Balkh, Herat, Kabul and Ghazni in Central Asia. The Muslims attacked north coast of Africa and were able to conquer Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria and Morocco. The Muslims of these territories were a mixture of the Arabs and the natives. They were called the Moors. The Moors captured Spain by 711 A.D. The Muslims invaded Sind in 712 A.D. under the command of Mohammed-Bin-Qasim and conquered it. They were able to convert many Indians to this faith. The Muslim conquerors invaded France in 732 A.D. but they were defeated by the French. By 750 A.D. the Muslim Empire included the territory from Spain on the west, through North Africa to China and into India. Now the '*Khalifas*' shifted their capital to Damascus. About the power of the '*Khalifas*' Gibbon remarks—"*At the close of the first century of Hijri (732 A.D.) the Khalifas were the most potent and absolute monarchs of the world*".

The last Omayyid Khalifa (Abu Muslim) was killed by Abul Abbas in about 750 A.D. who laid the foundation of Abbasid dynasty. It shifted the capital to Baghdad and ruled from 749 to 1256 A.D. During this period a large area between the Oxus and Jaxartas was added to the Khalafat empire.

The Abbasid Khalifas were followers of the Shia faith. They were not so fanatic as the Khalifas of the Omayyid dynasty who belonged to the Sunni faith. The Shias did not regard the first three Khalifas as the legitimate successors of the Prophet and regarded them as usurpers. In their opinion Ali (Prophet's son-in-law and the 4th Khalifa) is the only legitimate Khalifa and the only right person to expound the teachings of Prophet. The Sunnis also regard the first three Khalifas as the legitimate successors of the Prophet. So all the difference between the two is only regarding the successors of the Prophet.

Under the Abbasid Khalifas Baghdad became a great centre of art and literature and men of letters from all parts of Asia flocked to the city. The Abbasid Caliphate of Baghdad was at the height of its glory during the period of such capable Khalifas as Al Mansur (754—775 A.D.) and Harun-ul-Rashid (786—809 A.D.). But at the end of the eleventh century the Khalifa rule fell into the hands of the Turks and was reduced to almost nothing. The Turks on their part also played an important role in popularising Islam.

2. **Causes of the Rapid Spread of Islam.** There were many causes responsible for the rapid rise of Islam in the world. The chief among them are as follows :—

(1) *The Principle of equality and common brotherhood* had a great attraction for the common people, especially to the Indians who were tired of the growing class-distinctions and class-hatred among them. Arnold has rightly remarked, "*It is this absence of class prejudice which constitutes the real strength of Islam in India and enabled it to win so many converts from Hinduism.*"

(2) *The worship of one and all-powerful God* also had a great charm for the people, especially for those people who had become very tired of worshipping so many gods and goddesses and following so many complicated rituals and ceremonies.

(3) *The arms of Islam* also proved a potent factor in spreading it. Muslims were of the opinion that the soldier who dies fighting for Islam goes to the heaven. So they fought bravely for this noble cause. From the countries, which came under their domination, the Muslims won over a large number of followers because of their influence and royal pressure. According to Dr. Ishwari Prasad, "*Love of position, money and office must have induced some of the most talented men to embrace Islam.*"

(4) Moreover, Islam is a missionary religion and its preachers and followers spread their faith with great zeal.

(5) "*The simplicity of the Muslim creed,*" remarks Dr. Ishwari Prasad, "*was another cause of its success. Islam makes no great intellectual demand upon the believer, it has no elaborate rituals, the practice of which is in the hands of recognised class of priests.*"

(6) Sometimes the Muslim faith proved a *great boon* for the common people and it attracted them towards it. It gave internal peace and order and refined the habits and behaviour of those people who came under its banner.

SECTION 4—THE CONTRIBUTION OF ISLAM

According to **H A Davies**, during the five centuries following the death of Mohammed his followers evolved a civilization much superior to anything which existed in Europe at that time. For it, they were undoubtedly greatly indebted to the civilization of Greece and Persia, and perhaps to India as well, but they added something of their own to what they received from others.

1. **Political Institutions.** The central authority of the government was vested in the Caliphs who were the successors of Mohammed and were regarded as the Vicar of God on earth. He was both a religious and a political head. The Caliph ruled like an Oriental despot. To question his authority amounted to revolt against '*Allah*'. To protect Islam, to advance its power and to promote the welfare of the people were the main duties of the Caliphs. Most of the Caliphs acted like benevolent despots. They were great patrons of learning and literature and patronized scholars and scientists. They had well ordered systems of government and good scheme of taxation. In order to link together the various parts of the empire they restored the old Roman roads and constructed many new ones. They had an effective postal system and scheme of taxation. They maintained law and order and encouraged trade and industry which led to the happiness of the people.

2. **Economic Contribution.** The Arabs were *good agriculturists* of their time. They carried on farming in a scientific way. They practised crop rotation and fertilizers. They had good system of irrigation. They excelled in horticulture. They knew the art of grafting and produced new varieties of plants and flowers. They introduced into the West many trees, plants and fruits from the East such as apricots, peaches, lemons, oranges, dates, pomegranates, strawberries, cane etc. They built canals for irrigation.

They were skilful in many industries. They worked in all metals—gold, silver, copper, bronze, iron and steel. In the manufacture of textile fabrics no one has surpassed them. Their glass-ware and pottery were of fine quality. They knew the secrets of dyeing and were expert in leather work. They manufactured many things including armour, steel weapons, glass-ware, rose water, leather goods, textiles, porcelain, pottery, rugs, carpets, sugar and fine kinds of wine, paper etc. **Thatcher and Schwill** writes, "*As manufactures they surpassed the world in variety and beauty of design and perfection of workmanship*". They also made tinctures, essences and syrups.

The Arabs were commercial people by their very nature and their commerce was quite considerable. While spreading Islam, they had also brought about close trade relations among the different parts of the Muslim World. Ships from the eastern Mediterranean were seen in the ports of Italy and Spain. Caravans from the Nile Delta travelled into Africa to get wood, fruits and other things. The Arabs had established trading posts along the west coast of India and carried goods to China and Japan. The Arabs held the rich trade of India and that of the eastern Mediterranean in their hands until the 12th century. Baghdad, Bokhara and Samarcand were the great centres of trade and were visited by the merchants of Europe and Asia.

3. Learning and Literature. The Arabs made important contribution in the realm of learning and literature. They developed the Arabic language into a language of literature. The Caliphs patronised scholars and did a lot for the promotion of learning and education. Baghdad, Cairo, Cordova, Seville and Barcelona were the famous universities and great centres of learning. Even the Christians studied in these universities and they had greatly influenced the Universities of Paris and Oxford. Gerbert, who introduced the science of Mathematics into Europe, was one of the famous Christian students of the Cordova University. The University of Cairo had as many as 1200 students. Great libraries were set up for the benefit of the scholars and to promote the research work. They were well stocked, well-arranged and well-managed.

The *Arabian Nights* is the most famous work in the prose literature. It contains many famous stories of all times. A *Biographical Dictionary*, published in the 13th century, contains accounts of 865 important Muslim personalities. Iben Rashid (1126-1198 A.D.) was one of the greatest Muslim Philosophers. The *Annals of the Apostles and Kings* written by Al-Tabari was one of the most important works of this period. The Arabs loved poetry as well. *Rubaiyat* written by Omar Khayyam and *Gulistan* and *Bostan* composed by Sheikh Saadi were the famous literary works of the Arabs.

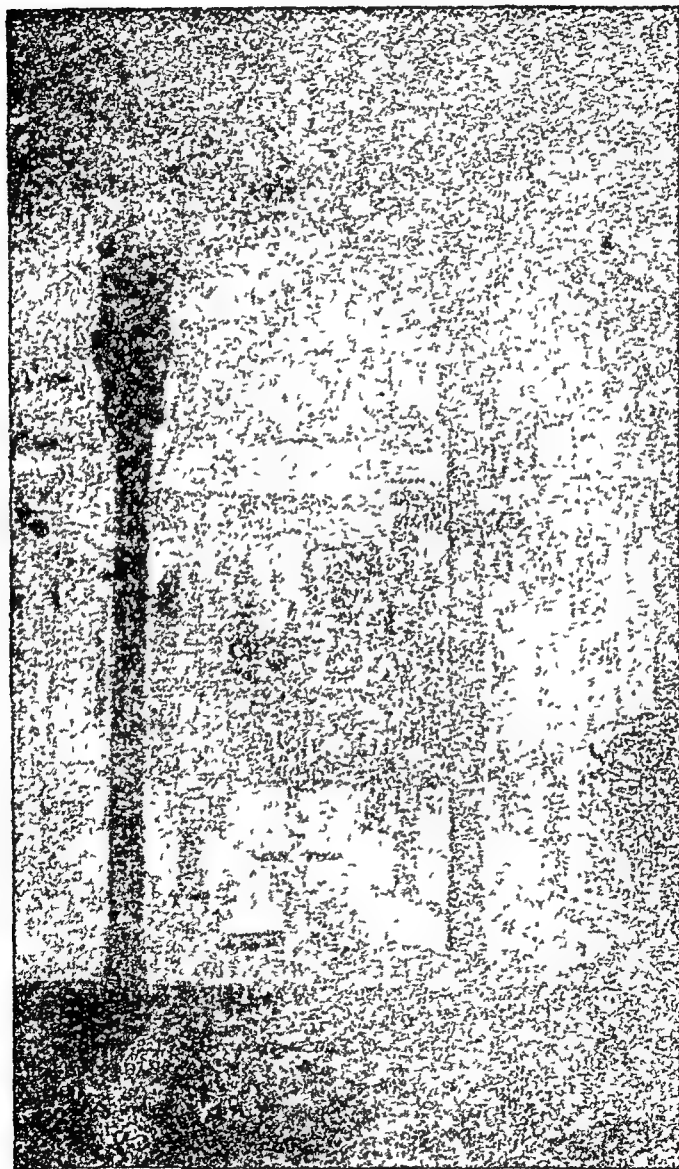
4 Science. Though the Arabs learnt much from Egypt, Greece and India in the realm of science yet they made some original contributions in this field also, and for that the scientific world is greatly indebted to them.

(1) *Mathematics* The Arabs introduced their Arabian numerals, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, etc. including 0 into Europe. They were easier to read and write than the Roman numerals. They had actually borrowed them from India. Algebra is practically their creation and they made it an exact science. They developed analytical Geometry and plane and spherical Trigonometry.

(2) *Medicine* The Arabs made a remarkable progress in the field of medicine. They studied hygiene and physiology. They performed major operations and treated insanity in a scientific way.

They knew how to use anaesthetics *Avicenna*, the author of *Medical Encyclopaedia*, 'was the great Arab physician *Al Hassan* developed optics

(3) *Physics, Chemistry and Geography* In Physics they developed the principle of pendulum and in Chemistry they discovered



A Specimen of Arab Architecture

Alcohol, Potash, Nitrate of Silver, Nitric Acid and Sulphuric Acid
In Geography they made correct measurements of latitude and

longitude and wrote descriptive geography. The adventurous voyages of Ibn Batuta, Al Idrisi, Ibn Hakaul, Alberuni etc. added to the human knowledge.

5 Arts. The Koran prohibits the making of human figures. So the Muslim decorations consisted of complex designs carried in wood and metals. The rich people decorated their homes with coloured and costly rugs and curtains. The Muslim artists showed their skill and workmanship in minor arts like metal works, decoration for lamps and illumination of manuscripts of the Koran. In the words of **Dr J E Swain**, "*The decoration of manuscripts of Koran represents one of the finest and the most delicate works of these artists*"

6 Architecture. Under the patronage of the Caliphs the Muslim architects developed a beautiful style of architecture and constructed mosques and palaces. Round arch, the graceful minarettes, the dome, pillars and rich ornamentation are the well-known features of the Arab architecture. The Koran forbids the use of statues in mosques, so mosaics of great beauty in geometric designs were used for ornamentation. Beautiful mosques like those of Cordova and Seville and fine palaces like the Alhambra Palace in Spain are the best specimens of Muslim architecture. They gave inspiration to the architects in the succeeding centuries. About the Alhambra Palace **J E Swain** writes "*It stands as a monument to the richness of oriental colour and design. It is built around an open court, overlooking numerous rooms and balconies. The interior walls of the rooms are carried with bright coloured designs in blue, red, yellow and gold.*"

Regarding the importance of the Muslim contribution **John Conard** observes—"The Arabs in the East learned much from the cultured peoples they had conquered. They were not mere imitators however, they developed a culture of their own. This civilization was spread west-ward through North Africa and into Spain. Similarly, **Dr. J E. Swain** writes, "*Muslim civilization was composite. It gathered ideas from the waning civilization of India, Persia, Egypt etc. Then Muslims continued the work begun in these earlier cultures and passed it on to western peoples to serve as a part of the foundation of the Renaissance. Medicine, Astronomy, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Art of the west depended much upon Arabic knowledge.*"

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-shell

1. Arabia and Birth of Mohammed. Idol-worship, Nomadic life. Living in tribes; Views of Dr Ishwari Prashad

2 Life of Mohammed. Birth in 570 A.D. in the Qureshi tribe : Early life not happy ; Marriage with Khadija ; Becoming a Prophet after Revelation at the age of 40 , Hijrat to Medina in 622 A D , Mohammed's success and death in 632 A D

3 Teachings of Mohammed. God is one , Koran as a divine book ; Day of Judgement ; Equality , Five duties of *Kalima*,

Namaj; Zaggat, Ramzan and Haj ; Keeping slaves and treating them kindly ; No liberty but kind treatment to women ; Preaching against wine and flesh of pig ; Stress on morality.

SECTION 3—Spread of Islam and its Causes

1. **Spread of Islam.** In Arabia in the life-time of Mohammed ; In Syria, Mesopotamia, Egypt, Persia, Central Asia and India under the Omayyid Caliphs (632-749 A D.) ; In Spain and a large area extending between the Oxus and Jaxartas under the Abbasid Caliphs (749-1253 A D.).

2. **Causes of the Rapid Spread of Islam.** Principle of Equality, Worship of one God ; The arms of Islam ; Missionary religion ; Simplicity of the Muslim creed.

SECTION 4—The Contribution of Islam

(1) *Political Institutions*—Caliph as a religious and political head ; Acted as a benevolent despot.

(2) *Economic Contribution.* Introduction of various plants, fruits and flowers ; Industries like metal work, leather work, pottery textiles etc. , Commercial relations with other countries.

(3) *Learning and Literature.* Great universities like Baghdad, Cairo, Cordova, Seville and Barcelona ; Great libraries ; Arabian Nights, Biographical Dictionary. Rubaiyat by Omar Khayyam, Gulistan and Bostan by Saadi, Annals of Apostles and Kings by Al-Tabari.

(4) *Science.* (i) Mathematics ; Arabian numerals and zero, Perfection of Algebra; Developed Trigonometry.

(ii) *Medicines.* Hygiene ; Physiology ; Operation, Treatment of insanity ; Development of optics, Avicenna was the greatest Arab Physician.

(iii) *Physics, Chemistry and Geography.* Developed the Principle of Pendulum ; Discovery of acids, alcohol etc.

(5) *Arts* Minor arts like metal work, decorations for lamps and illumination of the manuscripts of the Koran.

(6) *Architecture.* Use of round arches, domes, pillars, minarets and rich ornamentation, Mosques of Cordova and Seville and Palace of Alhambra

University and other Important Questions

1. Give an account of the life and teachings of Mohammed the Prophet. Give reasons for the rapid spread of Islam. (B.U., 1958, 60, U.U. 65)
2. Account for the rapid extension of Islamic empire and estimate the contribution of the Arabs to the world civilization (B.U., 1957, 61, 64)

3. Explain why Islam marks a great revolution in World History. (B.U., 1963)
 4. Describe in brief the cultural achievements of the Arabs. What was their influence on medieval Europe? (B.U., 1965)
 5. How far is it correct to state that the Arabs kept learning and art alive while Europe was passing through the Dark Ages? (B.U., 1971)
 6. Compare the main teachings of Prophet Mohammed to those of Jesus Christ and account for the spread of Islam. (B.U., 1971)
 7. "The only illuminating feature of Medieval History is the rise and spread of Islam". Substantiate and discuss in brief Islam's main contributions.
 8. Write down ten lines on the following :—
 - (1) Arab civilization. (B.U., 1958)
 - (2) Teachings of Islam. (B.U., 1956)
 - (3) Arab Science and Literature. (B.U., 1960)
 - (4) Muslim Medieval Universities. (B.U., 1963)
 - (5) Khalifa Harun-ul-Rashid.
 - (6) Kaaba.
 - (7) Contribution of Islam to World Civilization.
 9. Give the meanings of the following :—
 - (1) The First Caliph
 - (2) Famous story-book of the Arabs.
 - (3) The Sacred Book of Islam.
 - (4) Four Universities of Islam.
 10. Why are the following famous :—
 - (1) Cordova.
 - (2) Bagdad
 - (3) Omar Khayyam.
 - (4) The Arabian Nights.
 - (5) 570 A.D., 622 A.D., 632 A.D.
 11. Fill in the blanks :—
 - (1) Mohammed the Prophet was born at..... in A.D.
 - (2) Mohammed's shifting to Medina is called in Islam.
 - (3) was the first Caliph.
 - (4) Muslims go to for Haj.
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Feudalism and Middle Ages

SECTION 1—FEUDALISM: MEANING, FEATURES AND ITS ESTABLISHMENT

✓1. **Meaning.** The social institutions of the Middle Ages in Europe were based on a peculiar system of land tenure and that of the government. It was known as the feudal system or feudalism. According to Prof. Stubbs, "*Feudalism may be described as a complete organization of society through the medium of land tenure in which, from the kingdom to the lowest land owner, all are bound together by obligation to service and defence, the Lord to protect his Vassal, the Vassal to do service to his Lord.*" In it there was a contract between the king, the nobles and the Vassals. It was an important feature of life in the Middle Ages. The whole life of the European nations during the Middle Ages was shaped by feudalism.

2. **Chief Features of Feudalism.** The main features of feudalism are the following :—

✓(1) *King, the owner of the land.* The king was considered to be the lord of the whole land of the kingdom. He kept some land with him, known as the '*Crown land*' and distributed the rest among his nobles called the '*Vassals*'. The '*Vassals*' were absolute lords of their territory or *fiefs*.

✓(2) *Tenants-in-Chief.* The nobles or Tenants-in-Chief distributed the land granted to them by the king to the smaller Lords known as the '*Sub-tenants*'. Thus the Tenants-in-Chief had their own Vassals.

✓(3) *Sub-Tenants and Serfs.* The Sub-tenants further gave lands to the peasants for farming. These peasants were known as '*Serfs or Villeins*'. They were in a way, forced to till the lands of their Lord and pay him a greater share of their produce. The Serfs were almost tied to the land and they lived like slaves at the mercy of their Landlords. They could not leave their masters without their will. They had even to secure the permission of their Lord for the marriage of their daughter. In short, the Landlord was the master of the mind and body of the Serfs.

(4) *Freemen*. This category consisted of merchants, traders, artisans, professional soldiers etc., who were without any obligations to the feudal Lords.

(5) *Oath of Allegiance and Investiture* Both the Lord and the Vassals had to take oath of allegiance. The ceremony of becoming a Vassal was very impressive. The man who was to become the Vassal came to the castle of the Lord, knelt before him, placed his hand in the hands of the Lord and declared himself the Lord's man for a certain fief. This vassal ceremony was called the *homage*. Then the Vassal placed his hand on the Bible and took an *oath of allegiance*, to the Lord. The Lord then handed over the fief to the vassal.

(6) *Duties of the Tenants*. The Vassal had to pay many taxes to his Lord. He paid money to the Lord when his eldest son was knighted or when his eldest daughter was married. He had also to pay for the release of his master when he was captured. He had to render military service to his master and to attend the court whenever he was asked to do so by him. The disputes between the tenants were decided by their respective lords.

(7) *Duties of the Feudal Lord*. The Feudal Lord had also to perform various duties. He had to maintain the police force and the armed force, to build castles, to protect the life of his tenants, to decide their cases and to punish the guilty etc. He also rendered military service to the king in times of war and promoted agriculture, industry and commerce in his estate.

(8) *The Feudal Army*. There was no permanent military force with the king. To raise an army, he had to summon the Feudal Lords. They, in turn, called on their Vassals and so on.

The feudal army consisted of lords and their mounted warriors called knights. The feudal army was very showy but inefficient. There was no discipline in it. Warfare was the general rule, so personal bravery and skill were highly valued. The knights who showed chivalry in the battle-field received great honour.

(9) *Lack of Uniformity*. There was no uniformity in the feudal system in the west Europe in the Middle Ages. Its form and working differed from place to place and from country to country.

In short, in the words of **Will Durant** we can say "*The basic principle of feudalism was mutual fealty (fidelity), the economic and military obligation of Vassal to the Lord, of Lord to Superior Lord, of Superior Lord to the King, of King to the Superior Lord, of Superior Lord to Lord, of Lord to Vassal.*"

3. **Causes and Circumstances which established Feudalism** After the fall of the Roman Empire (5th-6th centuries A.D.) barbaric tribes like the Huns, Gauls, Vandals, Magyars and the Muslims invaded Europe. They gave a fatal blow to the commerce and industry and as such the economic condition of the

people became very miserable. Under these circumstances the King could not realize enough taxes from the people. Under these circumstances the King had nothing to give to his nobles except the tracts of land. The King offered them fiefs and conferred on them the right to make laws, to decide cases, to mint their own coinage, to impose taxes and even to maintain their own armed forces etc. These Feudal Lords further distributed such lands to their own Vassals.

On the other hand the property of the people did not remain safe and secure because of the invasions of the barbaric tribes. They looted people, destroyed their life and property and created chaos and disorder. Under these circumstances the people themselves accepted the over-lordship of the nobles who could guarantee their safety and security.

In this way, feudalism did not come into existence by the decrees issued by the kings but the circumstances bound the kings, lords and the common people together on the basis of protection and service, rights and duties.

SECTION 2—MERITS AND DEMERITS OF FEUDALISM

1. Merits of Feudalism. Feudalism, which was prevalent in the Middle Ages, had the following merits :—

(1) *Maintenance of Peace and Order.* The invasions of the barbaric tribes had created chaos and confusion. Though feudalism was not a perfect system of government yet it established peace and order which was the most pressing need of the hour.

(2) *Encouragement to Bravery and Chivalry.* Feudal lords took keen interest in military organization and highly prized the personal bravery and skill. Thus feudalism encouraged bravery and chivalry. Dr. J E. Swain observes, "*Chivalry promoted in medieval society a higher standard of honour, greater generosity, and an attitude of reverence.*"

(3) *Improvement in Administration.* Feudal lords took great interest in maintaining law and order and in improving the administration and laws in their estates. Thus feudalism provided improved methods of administration, justice and defence.

(4) *Development of Morality.* The Lords and Vassals were very keen to keep up their mutual contract. It developed a high regard for truth, honesty and promise. Various customs of knighthood created respect for women. Thus feudalism helped in the development of morality in the society.

(5) *Checked the Autocracy of Kings.* Both the Kings and the Lords were equally bound by the contract. At the same time the powers of the Kings were divided among the Feudal lords. In this way feudalism checked the autocratic and arbitrary tendencies of the Kings. King John of England had to sign the Magna-Carta under the pressure of the nobles.

(6) *Development of Agriculture, Trade and Industry.* In order to improve their economic condition the Lords paid special attention to *improve agriculture*. They constructed roads and encouraged *trade and industry*. They also built beautiful and strong *forts* for the protection of their subjects.

(7) *Lessons in Citizenship.* In the pyramidal system of feudalism all were bound by the contract. Hence the people learnt the good *lesson of citizenship* that rights and duties are inter-related and that rights are earned only by performing duties

(8) *Meeting the Demands of the Kings.* During this age Kings were unable to collect taxes and maintain a large and permanent army. Feudalism helped the rulers in *meeting their demands in respect of army and money*.

(9) *Development of the Roman and Gothic Styles of Architecture.* The buildings of this period has thick walls, massive pillars, square doors, small windows so that they could protect the people from the enemies. It led to the development of *Roman and Gothic styles of architecture*. Massivity and ornamentation are their chief features

(10) *Development of Literature.* It was necessary to infuse new spirit, life and enthusiasm in the people to enable them to face the barbaric tribes. So many poems and stories of bravery, folklore and romance were written. The '*Chanson de Roland*' is an epic of chivalry. Thus feudalism led to the *development of literature*.

Feudalism, thus, formed the basis of life of the European society in the Middle Ages. It helped the people of the Middle Ages to solve their political, social and economic problems. In this connection Prof A F. Hattersley observes, "*In short, it functioned well as a military measure, to organise local defence, economically to safeguard cultivation of the soil, and politically to provide machinery for local administration of justice.*"

2. **Demerits of Feudalism.** But Feudalism had many defects which can not easily be ignored :—

(1) *Blow to National Unity.* The country was divided into small fiefs held by the Feudal Lords. They were selfish and cared more for their interests and ignored the interests of the country as a whole. Hence feudalism gave a blow to national unity.

(2) *Weakness of the Central Government.* The Central Government became very weak. The Feudal Lords were all powerful and supreme. Their Vassals ignored the order of the King. The king was wholly dependent on the Feudal Lords both for military help and money. Sometimes they asserted their independence and the king could not control them.

(3) *Encouragement to Rebellions and Wars.* Feudalism encouraged *Rebellions and Wars*. The power of the Lords was increasing day by day and the Kings were becoming weaker and weaker. This encouraged rebellious tendency among the nobles. The nobles

were also eager to get new lands. So there was constant war-fare among them. It destroyed the peace and security and created chaos and confusion in the society. It was confusion roughly organized.

(4) *Defective Military Organization* Feudalism was responsible for *defective military organization*. Every lord organized his army in his own way. Their weapons and methods of fighting also differed. As a result, their armies could not co-operate even in times of national crisis.

(5) *Mal-administration of Justice.* Feudalism led to *mal-administration of justice*. Every lord had his own court and laws to decide the cases. The punishment for the same crime varied from estate to estate. This very fact created confusion in the administration of justice.

(6) *Gulf between the Nobles and the Serfs* Feudalism created a *deep gulf between the nobles and the serfs* and proved an obstruction in



Medieval Society - Picture of the Rich and the Poor.

the development of democracy. They lived in palatial buildings and led a luxurious life at the cost of the people. On the other hand the serfs suffered many social and economic disabilities and led a very poor, wretched and miserable life. They could not reap the fruits of their labour. They were completely at the mercy of their cruel and immoral masters.

(7) *Hampering the Progress of the Individual and the Society.* Feudalism hampered the progress of the individual and the society. Feudal lords cared little for the improvement of the common masses. They and their hunting dogs spoiled the crops while hunting. Crops were also destroyed during wars. Such factors, no doubt, adversely affected the economic prosperity of the people and greatly hampered their progress.

(8) *Proved harmful to Art, Literature and Crafts.* Feudalism proved harmful for the development of art, literature and crafts as well. Lords and their knights attached great importance to and encouraged fighting and war-like activities. As such much attention could not be paid to literary activities and cultural development.

SECTION 3—CAUSES OF THE DECLINE OF FEUDALISM

Feudalism flourished in Europe from the eighth to the twelfth century A.D. It, however, began to decline in the 15th century. The following causes led to its downfall :—

(1) *Rise of Powerful Kingdoms.* Powerful monarchies rose in France, Spain and England etc. in the 15th century. The rise of the powerful monarchies led to the decline of feudalism. They, like Tudor monarchs, devised various methods to crush the power of the feudal lords.

(2) *Destruction of the Feudal Lords in different Wars.* Many nobles died in mutual and constant warfare, Crusades, Hundred Years, War of Roses, etc. Those who survived were so much impoverished that they had no power and means to face the strong monarchs.

(3) *Rise of Nationalism.* The rapid spread of education aroused the spirit of nationalism. The feudal lords were selfish to the core and deadly opposed to nationalism. As a result, the educated people turned against feudalism and could not tolerate its existence.

(4) *Rise of the Middle Class.* New inventions encouraged trade and industry. This led to the rise of the middle class in towns and cities. The middle class desired peace for the promotion of commerce, industry and crafts. They wanted to get rid of the nobles who were always engaged in constant warfare. The middle class gave solid support to the kings to weaken the forces of feudalism.

(5) *Rise of Towns and Cities.* The rise of towns and cities also proved fatal to feudalism. Owing to the progress of trade and industries the towns-men grew rich. They greatly encouraged and helped the serfs to win their freedom from the lords. Thus the old structure of feudalism began to collapse with a rapid speed.

(6) *Invention of the Gun powder.* Gun-powder was invented in the 15th century. The king, alone had the monopoly of the gun-powder. This invention brought about a great change in the methods of warfare. The feudal armies armed with lances and spears could not stand in the face of the fire-arms of the royal forces. With the help of the gun-powder kings shattered the forts of the nobles which were considered as the centres of their power. It has been rightly remarked, "*This lesson was a little later driven home with increased definiteness by the use of gun-powder in warfare and by the development of trained armies equipped with fire-arms. When proud and famous knights could be easily destroyed from far away by musket balls discharged by the meanest of serfs, the old feudal power was irrevocably doomed.*"

(7) *Influence of the Church.* Church was a powerful institution of the Middle Ages. It had great influence not only on the common people but also on the feudal lords. The church issued a decree known as '*Truce of God*' and forbade fighting on all holidays, on Thursdays, Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays of every week. Again it was decreed that peasants, traders and women were not to be molested during warfare. Not only this, the church curbed the cruelty of the lords in many other ways.

(8) *Maintenance of standing Army.* The kings realized the importance of maintaining the standing army instead of depending on the nobles who were oppressive. As such they were hated by the middle class and the common masses. These very people helped the kings to raise standing armies. The progress of trade, commerce and industries increased the income of the kings. They were now no longer dependent on the nobles. The standing army was faithful to the king and it helped him a lot in curbing the power of the lords.

(9) *Development of Democracy.* The development of democracy and principles of liberty and equality led to the foundation of parliaments in many countries. The voice of the people began to carry weight and slowly and slowly many restrictions were placed on the feudal lords. For example, in England, King Henry VII, devised various means to destroy the power of the barons. By the '*Statute of Livery and Maintenance*' he forbade them to raise armies.

SECTION 4—CIVILIZATION AND CULTURE OF THE MIDDLE AGES

The society in the middle ages was not static, it developed and changed from time to time. Though, the civilization of the Middle Ages is not impressive, yet it can be called the formative period of the modern society. The foundation of the modern civilization was laid during the Middle Ages. Many of the things that we accept as modern had their origin then.

1. **Social Life.** Feudalism formed the basis of the social life. The *nobles* enjoyed most of the privileges. They possessed wealth and lived a luxurious life in palatial buildings. The *upper* clergy shared the privileges of the nobles. The lower clergy lived with the common people and suffered hardships with them. The *lower class*, including all groups, other than nobles and upper clergy, lived a very economical life. The serfs were bound to the soil. The people belonging to the lower class had to work hard. They led a miserable life. They had to pay taxes to the state, to the nobles, and to the church. They lived in poor houses. Their clothing was coarse and their food was scanty. These classes were hereditary and rigid.

As the trade and industry developed, there came a revolution in the social life in the 13th century. Many towns came into existence. The development of town-life was responsible for the *rise of the middle class* which brought a great change in the social order. The middle class had progressive outlook and were able to exert influence in political matters. This class was responsible for the development of nationalism and nation-states.

2. **Economic Life or Economic Contribution** The people of the early Middle Ages mostly lived in villages and *agriculture was their main occupation* under the feudal system. The methods of agriculture were primitive and crude. Travel and communication were dangerous and difficult. Trade was not developed and there was little money. There was no regulated system of coinage, roads and bridges.

The things changed with the passage of time. The Crusaders broke the isolation and feudalism began to decline. Many roads and bridges were constructed and improvements were made in the means of travel and communication. Many towns and cities grew and *trade and industries developed*. Trade fairs were held at different places from time to time and the traders from distant lands displayed and sold their goods there. Later on the traders formed *Merchants-guilds* to encourage trade and commerce. The main functions of these guilds were to help the members in time of danger and need to regulate prices, to guarantee a fixed price, and to keep up the standard of the commodities produced. These guilds also safeguarded the interests of both the employers and the employees.

Coins, systematic weights and measures were introduced and barter system was replaced by money economy. *Banks* were

established and they promoted trade and commerce. According to **Dr. J.E. Swain**, improved letters of credit and bills of exchange were introduced by the North Italian cities before the 15th century A.D.

The craftsmen also formed '*Crafts-Guilds*' to encourage crafts and industries. They supervised the work of guilds, enforced the statutes, settled disputes between masters and workmen, imposed fines upon the guilty, examined the articles before they were put in the market etc. About the economic contribution of the Middle Ages **Dr. J.E. Swain** writes, "*In general, it can be concluded that the beginning of the modern coinage, letters of the credit, and banking occurred in the Middle Ages. The modern concepts of capitalism and industrialization developed from economic tendencies, which also found expression in the Middle Ages.*"

-3 Political Life or Political Contribution Strong and vast empires disappeared in the Middle Ages. They were replaced by many *small states*. These small states were often at war with one another and there was *chaos and confusion* all round. *Feudalism* was the order of the day and formed the basis of the political life. The land element and the personal element were the two main aspects of feudalism. The rulers distributed their lands among the nobles in return for their special services and taxes. By and by, these feudal lords became very powerful and exercised a great check in the despotic rule of the medieval kings. They stood in the way of the development of national unity and strong centralized government. In the Middle Ages the common people had no hand or say in the affairs of the government. The political power was shared by the rulers, the feudal lords and the upper clergy.

But the development of trade, commerce and industries, growth of towns and cities and the rise of the middle class brought about a great many changes in the political field. The middle class was wealthy. It rose in social ladder, and began to exert great influence in politics. As a result many *national city-states* developed in Germany, Northern Italy and Netherlands. Each had its own coinage and its own army. The political institutions of these City-states laid the foundation of many modern political practices and institutions. According to **Professor Hayes, Moon and Wayland**, "*It was among medieval city-states, especially in Italy, that many of practices of modern diplomacy arose. Venice in the 13th century created a professional class of ambassadors.*"

There appeared in the latter part of the Middle Ages such states which were more or less like the national states. The support of the wealthy middle class, who wanted peace and order for their prosperity, led towards the establishment of national states. There was a common desire between the middle class and the workers for peace and stability. The development of national languages, common religious ideas, beliefs, practices and common culture developed feelings of unity, patriotism and nationalism. These forces developed slowly and slowly and ultimately they led to the emergence

of national states such as France, England, Scotland, Poland, Hungary, Denmark, Sweden, etc. Thus feudalism was declining and a new order was emerging. Thus the modern national state had its beginning in the Middle Ages.

Being forced by circumstances the kings summoned the councils which included not only nobles and bishops but also the representatives of the common people. This practice contained the seeds of the modern *parliament*. In England King Edward I called the Model Parliament in 1295 A.D. It consisted of the nobles, bishops and the representatives of the Common people. King Philip IV of France convened a parliament called the '*Estates General*'. It consisted of the three Estates—the first Estate of the bishops, the second Estate of the nobles and the third Estate of the commoners. Thus the idea of the Parliament emerged in the Middle Ages.

4 Religion, Theology and Philosophy Many European countries embraced christianity in the Middle Ages. Pope was the head of the Christian church and commanded great influence and respect in the Christian world. Cathedrals and Monasteries were established and they helped in the propagation of Christianity. It was a period of ignorance. The people were not highly educated. They were mostly superstitious and followed old traditions blindly. The feelings of religious tolerance and freedom, were generally absent. The pagans were persecuted. Many crusades were fought between the Muslims and the Christians. The Jews were hated by the Christians.

The early Christians condemned the Greek Philosophy because they thought it obscured morals and encouraged heresy. But in the later period they began to accept the methods and conclusions of the Greek philosophers. In the Middle Ages, too, some *theologians* and *philosophers* produced some rich works. *Abelard* was one of the greatest and most original thinkers in the Middle Ages. He was a great theologian who used the powers of reason to defend and explain the faith of the church. He said, "*It is through reason, and not through compulsion, that men can be brought to accept the Christian faith*". His greatest work was '*Sic et Non*' (Yes or No). *Peter Lombards*' '*Sentences*' was also an outstanding work on theology. *Thomas Aquinas* introduced philosophy of Aristotle but combined it with medieval theology. His '*Summa Theologica*' is the famous work. So theology was regarded as the "*Queen of Sciences*" during the Middle Ages.

5. Education and Learning. (1) *Schools*: The barbaric invasions did great harm to the Roman educational system. Charlemagne was unlettered but he left no stone unturned for the spread of education. He established a school in his palace for the sons of the nobles. Cathedrals and Parish churches rendered useful services in the field of education through the schools attached to them. The crafts-guilds imparted training in various practical crafts.

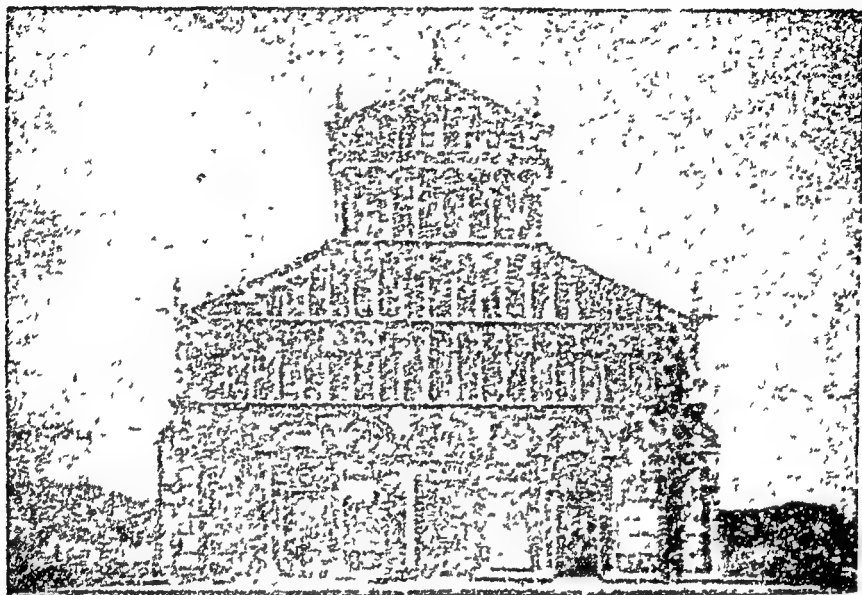
(2) *Origin of Universities.* Education was looked upon as a means of getting a better position in the church and the state. The foundation of the *famous Universities of Europe*, e.g.: Oxford and Cambridge in England, Paris in France, Salerno and Bulogne in Italy were laid in the Middle Ages. Different universities had *specialized in different subjects*. Students came to study theology and philosophy in the University of Paris, to study medicine in the university of Salerno, and to study law in the university of Bulogne. There were no *buildings*. The students sat on the floor and received education from their teachers. The university in the Middle Ages was a sort of a guild of students and teachers. The University of Paris had four faculties—arts, law, medicine and theology. Each was under the charge of a Dean. The students received the *degrees* of Bachelor of Arts (B A), Master of Arts (M A), Doctor of Laws, Doctor of Medicine, etc. The persons getting the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph D) were regarded as great scholars. Students studied in the university mainly to prepare for a career, rather than merely to acquire culture. Arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, music, grammar, rhetorics and logic were the *main subjects* of study. *'The university played an important part not only in establishing the culture of the Middle Ages but also in paving the way for the cultural developments of the later periods,'* writes Dr. J E. Swain.

(3) *Literature* Latin remained the language of learning, culture, civilization and of the churches, the universities and the scholars upto 1000 A D. Outstanding writers such as Guibert, Magnus, Thomas Aquinas and Roger Bacon etc wrote in Latin. Later on *vernacular languages* such as French, Italian, English, Spanish, German, Rumanian and Dutch etc developed and gradually replaced Latin as the medium of expression. This resulted in the production of rich literature in the vernaculars. Dante wrote his 'Divine comedy' and Petrarch wrote 'Sonnets' and Boccaccio, his 'Tales' in the Italian language. 'Chaucer the father of English poetry wrote 'Canterbury's Tales' in English. 'The Books of Frankish History', 'Life of Charlemagne', 'The Conquest of Constantinople', 'Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation' are the notable historical works produced in the Middle Ages. About the importance of the vernacular languages Dr J E Swain observes, "Vernacular languages provided an important element for political unity in the national state." The rise of the national state is one of the most significant developments in modern history.

(4) *Science* Though the people in the Middle Ages were orthodox, superstitious and under the influence of the church yet some thinkers like Roger Bacon, Thomas Aquinas etc encouraged scientific and rational way of thinking. Roger Bacon laid great stress on experiments in science and contemplated the inventions of horseless carriages and flying machines. Printing press, paper, cotton, mariner's compass with magnetic needle, clocks and time pieces, glass windows, lens, movable type, mechanical locks are the *important inventions* made during the Medieval period. Thinkers

of this period paid attention to *astology and alchemy* which formed the basis of modern Astronomy and Chemistry respectively. The scientists of the Middle Ages also made some progress in the fields of *physics, medicine and surgery*.

6 **Art and Architecture.** The *Romanesque* and *Gothic* styles of architecture developed during the Middle Ages. The former

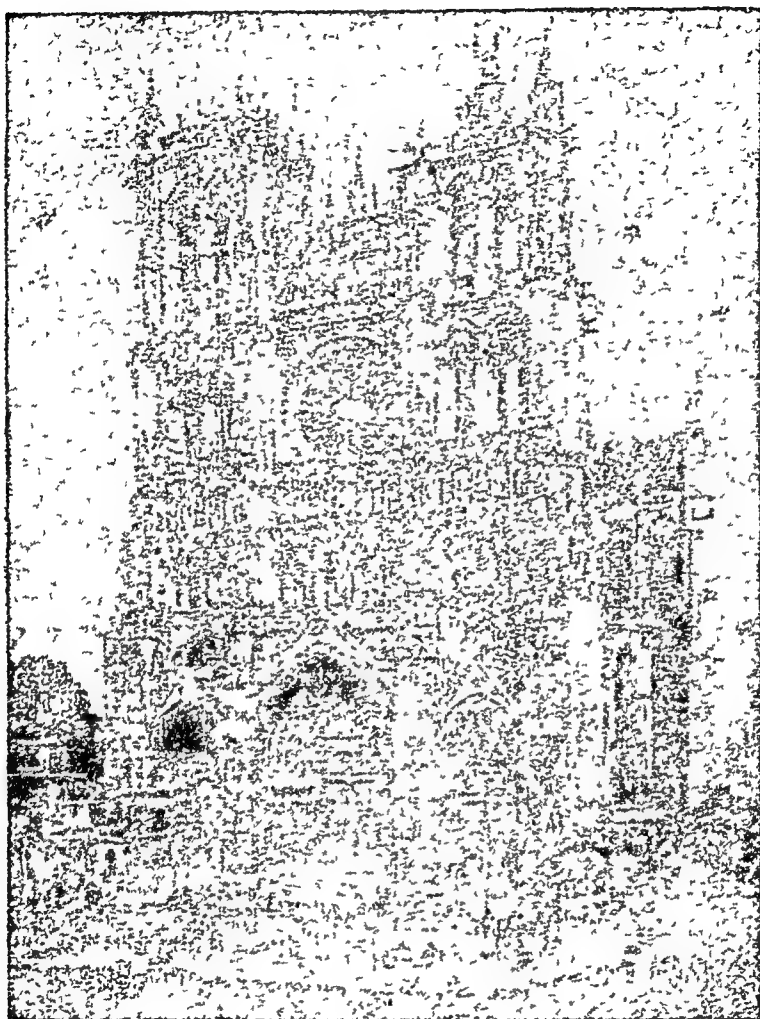


The Cathedral at Pisa

had its origin in the Roman style and lasted upto the end of the 12th century. The Cathedral at Pisa, the Church of San Ambrogio in Milan, the Church of San Miniato in Florence are the best specimens of this style. Thick walls, massive pillars, square doors, small windows, circular arches and simple decorations are the main features of the Romanesque style. The pointed arch, pointed and ridged roofs, flying buttresses, the rose windows and elaborate decoration are the chief features of the Gothic style. Great stress was laid on both beauty and massiveness. The Cathedrals of Paris, Milan, York and London are the best examples of the Gothic style. The churches built according to the Gothic style were decorated with statues, paintings, coloured glass windows, carved wood work, candle sticks, vessels of gold and silver etc. About the cathedrals of the Middle Ages **J H Robinson** says, "*No modern buildings equal them in beauty and grandeur and they are the most striking memorial of the religious spirit, the power of the bishops and the town pride of the Middle Ages.*"

Sculptors of the Middle Ages used religious subjects to decorate the cathedrals. They produced fine statues in wood, stone, marble and ivory in different poses. Medieval sculpture was graceful and impressive. 'A nude statue of the boy David' and

Donatello's '*St George*' and the '*Young Angels*' are the remarkable examples of medieval sculpture.



A Medieval Church, one of the finest example
of Gothic Architecture

Though the *painters* did not ignore the *religious subjects* yet they favoured the *secular subjects* also like land-scapes hunting scenes, and tournaments, etc. Cimabue, Duccio, and Giotto are the outstanding painters of this period. Beauty, light, vivid colouring, simplicity etc are the special features of the paintings of the Middle Ages. The Renaissance painters were later on greatly influenced by the works of Giotto.

About the contributions of the Middle Ages in the fields of art and architecture **Dr. J.E. Swain** writes "*Roman, Byzantine,*

barbarian and christian artistic conceptions were merged and out of their combination ultimately developed the Renaissance Art."

7. Importance of the Middle Ages. The people in the Middle Ages were illiterate, ignorant and superstitious but their contributions to world culture and civilization cannot be ignored and underestimated. The seeds of the modern age were sown in the Middle Ages. It has left rich legacy in the fields of art and architecture, education, language, literature and science. It laid the foundation of national states, democracy and money economy. **Prof. M. Viollet** writes, "*What we are, we are, in great measure, because of the Middle Ages. They are alive all around us. The Middle Ages were thus fertile and creative and laid many of the foundations of the present day civilization in Europe and America.*" Similarly **Hayes, Moon and Wayland** writes, "*when we take into account all the contributions of the Middle Ages to our modern world—music, architecture, literature, law, medicine as well as ideas and practices of government and diplomacy—we must conclude that many of the foundations of present day civilization in Europe and America were laid in the era from the 11th to 14th century.*"

Again in the words of **Dr J.E Swain**, "*The Middle Ages can be called truthfully the formative period of modern history. Many of the things that we accept as modern had their origin then. Our religion, philosophy, education, science, language, art and government grew out of the Middle Ages through a long process of development. Although born in that period they were not typical of it. Their appearance marked the beginning of modern times.*"

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-shell

SECTION 1—Feudalism—Meaning, Features and Causes of its Establishment

(1) *Meaning* System of land tenure and government

(2) *Features.* (i) King owner of land, (ii) Tenants-in-chiefs; (iii) Serfs, (iv) Freemen, (v) Oath of Allegiance and Investiture; (vi) Duties of tenants, (vii) Duties of feudal lords, (viii) The feudal army (ix) No uniformity

(3) *Causes for its Establishment.* (1) Miserable condition of the people and offering of fiefs by the ruler to lords and the lords to the people, (2) Acceptance of this system by the people for their safety

SECTION 2—Merits and Demerits of Feudalism

1 *Merits of Feudalism.* (1) Peace and order; (2) Encouraged bravery and chivalry; (3) Improvement in Administration; (4) Development of Morality; (5) Check on Despotic Rule; (6) Development of agriculture, trade and industry; (7) Lessons in

citizenship ; (8) Meeting the demands of the kings in respect of army and money ; (9) Development of architecture ; (10) Development of Literature

2. *Demerits of Feudalism.* (1) Blow to national unity ; (2) Weakness of the Central government ; (3) Encouraged rebellions and wars ; (4) Defective military organization ; (5) Mal administration of Justice ; (6) Gulf between nobles and serfs ; (7) Hampered the progress of individual and society ; (8) Harmed art and crafts

SECTION 3—Causes of the Decline of Feudalism

(1) Rise of Powerful kingdoms ; (2) Destruction of Feudal Lords in wars ; (3) Rise of Nationalism ; (4) Rise of the Middle Class , (5) Towns and Cities , (6) Invention of Gun-Powder , (7) Influence of the Church ; (8) Maintenance of standing Army , (9) Development of Democracy.

SECTION 4—Life and Culture of Middle Ages and its Contributions

(1) *Social Life.* (i) The nobles, the upper-clergy, lower class and their life ; (ii) Rise of the middle class and its importance.

(2) *Economic Life and Contribution.* (i) Agriculture main-occupation ; (ii) Development of trade and industry and rise of middle class ; (iii) Money economy and banking system , (iv) Trade and Craft Guilds.

(3) *Political Life and Contribution* (i) In early periods, small states, chaos and confusion, rise of feudalism , (ii) Decline of feudalism later on ; (iii) Rise of middle class and national city-states , (iv) National states ; (v) Parliament

(4) *Religion, Theology and Philosophy* (i) Influence of church ; (ii) Period of ignorance and superstitions ; (iii) Religious intolerance , (iv) Theologians and Philosophers paved the way of scientific thinking.

(5) *Education and Learning.* (i) Schools ; (ii) Origin of Universities—Famous Universities, no buildings, different degrees, subjects , (iii) Literature in Latin quite popular Development of vernacular languages and Literature , Historical works (iv) Science —Roger Bacon's stress on experiments ; Important inventions , Astrology and alchemy ; Progress in Physics, medicine and surgery

(6) *Art and Architecture* Development of Romanesque and Gothic styles of architecture ; Decorations · Sculpture , Paintings

(7) *Importance of Middle Ages* Formative period of modern age

University and other Important Questions

- 1 What do you mean by Feudalism ? How did it arise in Europe ?
(U U 1962, 63, 64, 65)
- 2 What led to the rise of Feudalism in Middle Ages ? What were its chief features ? Why did it decline
(All India Hr Sec. 1966)

3. What are the chief characteristics of the Middle Ages ?
(A.I. Hr. Sec. 1968)
 4. Give the chief merits and demerits of Feudalism (A.I. Hr. Sec. 1967)
 5. What were the duties of the Feudal Lords and Tenants under Feudalism ? What were the merits of this system ? (A. I Hr. Sec. 1969)
 6. What is Feudalism ? Discuss its importance from political and economic aspects.
(B.U. 1957)
 7. Outline the economic, social and political aspects of Feudalism and discuss its merits and demerits.
(B U. 1961, 63, 67)
 8. What factors led to the growth of Feudalism in Europe ? (B.U. 1965)
 9. What does the world owe to the Middle Ages ? (B.U. 1951)
 10. What were the significant ideas and achievements of the Middle Ages in Europe and why did the Medieval world break up ?
(B.U. 1961)
 11. "The Middle Ages was the formative period of Modern History." Explain.
 12. What was the role of universities and Guilds in Europe during the Middle Ages ?
(B.U. 1971)
 13. Write ten lines on the following —
(1) Political aspect of Feudalism (2) Medieval Towns and Guilds
(3) Rise of towns in Middle Ages (4) Medieval Universities. (5) Gothic Architecture (6) Intellectual life in Medieval Europe.
 14. Fill in the blanks —
(1) Feudalism was an important institution of the——Ages.
(2) ——formed the basis of Feudalism.
(3) The condition of the——was miserable under feudalism
(4) The feudal lords rendered——to the kings in Middle Ages.
(5) The Rise of——class proved fatal to feudalism.
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The Holy Roman Empire and Papacy

SECTION 1—THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

1. Meaning of the Holy Roman Empire. The Empire established in Europe in 800 A.D. for the protection of monarchy and Church from the utter confusion created by feudalism and invasions of the barbaric tribes is called the Holy Roman Empire. On 25th December, 800 A.D. the Pope Léo III placed the crown of the Roman Emperors on the head of Charlemagne, also known as 'Charles the Great', in the History of the World and thus was laid the foundation of the Holy Roman Empire. It is so-called because it was established by the Pope and its aim was to protect the Church and to propagate Christianity.

2. Circumstances leading towards the Establishment of the Holy Roman Empire. After the fall of the Western Roman Empire (in about 476 A.D.) Europe was once again engulfed in an atmosphere of complete lawlessness and disorder. Under such circumstances both the Pope and the King were forced to come to each other's help. The King began to assist the Pope against barbarian invasions and on his part the Pope began to crown the king with his own hands. The people on their part as **George Guest** puts it, "*began to think that two forces were necessary for the restoration of the Empire—the Papacy, as God's representative, to care for the soul of man, and an Emperor to safe-guard man's material needs.*" As such came into being, what in history is described as the '*Holy Roman Empire*'.

Of all the tribes who penetrated deep into various parts of the Western Roman Empire, the Franks (of Germany) proved to be the strongest and the most progressive. In the words of one historian, "*They were called Franks because their chief weapon was 'franciscus' or axe.*" **Clavis** (481 to 511 A.D.) their first king, embraced Christianity and by doing so he got the support of the Pope and greatly strengthened his position. The power and prestige of the Church and the Pope was also greatly raised by this union of the state and the church.

Another Frankish king, worthy of special mention was, **Charles Mortel**, who defeated the Arabs in 732 A.D. and saved Europe from being over-run by the Muslims. This action of Charles brought the

church and the Frankish kings closer to each other. But the greatest king of the Franks was Charles the Great or Charlemagne as he is usually called. He was not only a great conquerer and an empire-builder but also a great reformer and a wise diplomat. He further developed the friendship with the Pope. Once, when in 799 A.D. many nobles joined hands and drove the Pope Pius III out of Rome, he helped the Pope at this critical juncture and defeated the nobles. The Pope gave a part of his lands to Charles to rule. Charles knelt in prayer in St. Peter's Church at Rome on Christmas Day in 800 A.D. Pope placed a golden crown on the Frankish king's head and proclaimed him Emperor of the Romans. The people shouted in joy, "*Long life and Victory to Augustus, great peace giving Roman emperor, crowned by God.*" This event led to the establishment of the *Holy Roman Empire* which was later on abolished by Napoleon in 1806 A.D. Both the church and the state were partners in the Holy Roman Empire.

3. Chief Features of the Holy Roman Empire. The chief features of the Holy Roman Empire were as follows :—

(1) It was called the Holy Roman Empire because its main aim was to defend the power of the church and christianity. Sometimes there were conflicts between the Emperor and the Pope but still it continued to realize its main aim of protecting the Pope and the church.

(2) The Holy Roman Empire grew out of the close contact and relationship between the state and the church. Both needed each other and were inter-dependent. Charles wanted the support of the Pope to make his position safe, secure and strong because Pope had great influence on the people. He also wanted to establish a unified and strong empire with the help of the Pope. On the other hand, Pope also wanted to strengthen his position and overcome his difficulties and enemies with the support of the Frankish rulers.

(3) No doubt the Roman emperors were crowned at Rome but it was only a nominal centre of the empire. The seat of the empire always lay north of the Alps. Many of the Roman emperors had no hold on Italy.

(4) The Roman Emperor was usually a German king who was elected by the German princes. After his election he was crowned as the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire by the Pope. It has been rightly remarked, "*The Empire was German rather than Italian.*"

(5) Both the Pope and the Emperor regarded themselves superior to each other and were not willing to surrender. Pope thought himself superior to the Emperor because he was the crowning authority. On the other hand Charles was not ready to submit to the supremacy of the Pope as he thought that he got the crown as a reward for his services to the Pope. This led to bitter strifes between the state and the church in future.

4. How far is it justified to call it a Holy Roman Empire? Many critics have pointed out that the Empire was neither holy

nor Roman. It was not holy because it did not fulfill any holy aim. It was not theocratic in nature. Simply because Charles knelt in prayer at the altar of the church and crowned by the Pope does not make the Empire holy. Many emperors and the Pope continued to struggle for supremacy. The Empire was neither Roman because it was unrelated to Rome. Charles was not the descendent of the Roman Emperors. "*Charles's Empire*," writes Appel Conard, "*contained much land that had never been in the old Roman Empire and the largest part of the old Roman Empire was not included in his realms*". Generally Rome or Italy remained out of the boundaries of these emperors. So according to these critics it is not proper to call this empire as "The Holy Roman Empire."

5. Failures of the Holy Roman Empire. (1) It failed in its aim of setting up a *vast empire* in Europe under the leadership of the Pope and the Emperor. The general insecurity of life and the weakness of the successors of Charles favoured the development of feudalism and later on of nationalism which paved the way for the hasty decline of the empire.

(2) It proved *fatal for the unity of Germany*. The division of the empire led to the creation of a number of independent states. At the same time the emperors tried to assert their authority in Italy and cared little to consolidate their position in Germany. It helped the nobles to extend their power and influence. Thus, it destroyed political unity in Germany.

(3) The Emperors had high ambitions but they lacked the sources to realize them. The scanty means of income always *weakened their economic condition*.

(4) Some of the Popes regarded themselves superior to the Emperors because it were they who crowned the Emperors. At the same time the Popes had great influence over the masses. On the other hand the Emperors were not ready to acknowledge the superiority of the Popes and submit to their authority. This led to serious strifes and struggles between the emperors and the Popes. Naturally, under such circumstances, the Holy Roman Empire could not survive for long.

6. Success or Services of the Holy Roman Empire. The Holy Roman Empire, however, rendered some very useful services to the European society.

(1) The Emperors were able to control the turbulent tendencies of the nobles and to *weaken the evils* of feudalism with the help of the Popes, at least for sometimes.

(2) At many times the Holy Roman Empire was successful in *defending Europe from the invasions* of the barbaric tribes.

(3) The Emperors rendered useful services to Europe by protecting the European countries from the *invasions of the Turks*. The Christians fought many holy wars or crusades with the Turks and *expelled* them from Europe.

SECTION 2—CHARLEMAGNE OR CHARLES THE GREAT (768—814 A.D.)

Charles was the greatest of all the Frankish rulers. He ruled from 768 A.D. to 814 A.D. According to John Conard Appel he was perhaps the most outstanding ruler in Europe during the entire period of the Early Middle Ages. He not only built a large empire but also he cherished high ideals for ruling it. His ambition was to create a great Christian empire based on the principles of Christianity. He was a staunch advocate of Christianity and wanted to bring the whole of Europe to the Christian fold. He was a tall man of commanding personality, a friend of the church, and a patron of learning and art.

1. **His Conquests.** Charles was a great soldier, warrior, military commander and a conquerer. His great political ideal was to bring all the German people together into a Christian Empire and to lead his subjects to greater knowledge and prosperity. He got this ideal from the famous book of St. Augustus, *'The City of God'*. He suppressed the rebellions within his territory. Then he marched against the *Lombards* in north Italy in 773 A.D. because they were harassing the Pope and threatening his existence. He defeated them and annexed their territory to his kingdom. A part of the conquered territory was also given to the Pope. Not only this, he drove the Muslims out of Spain in 778 A.D. Again, he got much success against his most determined foes, i.e., the Saxons. It was a German tribe which dwelt between the Rhine and the Elbe. Charles defeated them and forcibly converted them to Christianity. It was the greatest of Charles' military campaigns because Saxons were war-like people who put up a strong resistance. Then he conquered the Bavarians and annexed their territory. His conquests made him supreme in western Europe. In this way he laid the foundation of a large empire which extended from the North Sea to the central part of Italy and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Elbe River. It included the modern countries of Netherlands, Belgium, France, Austria, various parts of Germany, Switzerland, Spain, Italy, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. On Christmas day, 800 A.D. he was crowned Emperor by the Pope in the Church of St. Peter at Rome. In this way he established the Holy Roman Empire which flourished for centuries and was ultimately over-thrown by Napoleon in 1806 A.D.

2. **His Administration.** Charles was not only a great warrior but also an able administrator. He wanted to consolidate his conquests by laying the foundation of an efficient administration. His task was difficult because he had no money and the officials, who were often powerful, always tended to neglect the commands and interests of the sovereign. So his general policy was to leave the people, whom he had conquered, under their own laws and institutions so long as they were loyal and obedient to the Central Government.

(1) *Counties, Duchies and Marches*. Keeping in view the difficulties mentioned above he did not create a highly centralised government but allowed much freedom to the local people. He gave tracts of land to his warriors who helped him in his military campaigns. These tracts were known as Counties, Duchies and Marches and their rulers were called Counts, Dukes and Marquises respectively. They were expected to maintain law and order within their regions, to see that justice was done, and to supply troops when the king wanted them. There was no regular army. This scheme of administration laid the foundation of feudalism in Europe.

(2) *Assemblies of Nobles and Bishops*. Charles used to call the assemblies of the nobles and the bishops four times a year. He laid his policy before them and sought their advice on matters relating to administration and general welfare. In this way he inspired them to look after the welfare of his subjects.

(3) *Laws or Capitularies*. Charles issued laws called 'Capitularies' with the approval of the assembly of nobles and bishops. They were 65 in number. They dealt with all subjects such as farming, industry, finance, education, religion etc. Some of them have been preserved but he was not a great codifier of the laws like Justinian. His laws were based on the principles of Christianity and German traditions. According to H.A. Davies, "*The laws, of which he was himself the author, are a curious mixture of German, Roman and Biblical elements. Since his empire was to be pre-eminently Christian, the Bible was to be the highest authority, and he sought to make his laws conform to it.*"

(4) *Missi Dominici*. In order to keep an eye on the officials and to know the general conditions of his subjects Charles appointed a new type of officials called 'Missi Dominici'. They were the royal messengers who toured the various parts of the empire. It was their duty to inquire into the conduct of all officials, to see that justice was done, to hear appeals, to enforce the rights of the royal treasury, to hunt down the robbers, to report on the morals of the bishops and to see that monks lived according to the rules of their order. They reported to the king about the condition of the people and saved them from the tyranny of the local officials. Charles himself undertook tours from time to time. In order to improve the lot of his subjects he built roads and bridges, promoted agriculture, encouraged trade and commerce and issued new coins.

3. **Learning and Education**. Charles himself was unlettered but he was a great patron and lover of education. He was not a scholar himself but he liked to have scholars around him and converse with them. He wanted his subjects to have education. He established churches, monasteries and schools in all parts of his large empire. He issued the following order to the clergymen, "*Let every monastery and every abbey have its school, where boys may be taught the psalms, music, arithmetic and grammar; and let the books that are given to them be free from faults.*" He set up a special school at Tours. He established a royal school in his palace at his capital Aachen (or Aix-La-Chapelle)

for the royal children and those of nobles. An English scholar named 'Alcuin of York' was the director of this school. In 789 A.D. he issued a directive to the Directors of Schools. *"Take care to make no difference between the sons of serfs and of freemen, so that they might come and sit on the same benches, to study music, grammar and arithmetic"*. Ancient manuscripts were copied out and well preserved. Educated people were honoured more than the nobility. Charles took great interest to review the Roman culture. Undoubtedly Charles's fame, to a great extent, rests on his encouragement to learning and education. In this connection **Thomas Hodgkin** remarks, *"Charles takes a foremost place among the benefactors of humanity, as a man who, himself imperfectly educated, knew how to value education in others; as one who, amid the manifold harassing cares of government and of war, could find leisure for that friendly inter-course with learned men which far more than his generous material gifts cheered them on in their arduous and difficult work; and as the ruler to whom perhaps more than to any other single individual we owe the fact that the precious literary inheritance of Greece and Rome has not been altogether lost to the human race"*.

4. Promotion of Art and Architecture. Charles was a patron of art and architecture and a great lover of music. He built churches and cathedrals to propagate Christianity. He constructed two palaces, one near Mayence and the other at Nimwegen in Holland. His palace and a great Cathedral at his capital are good specimens of architecture. He also built long bridge across the Rhine at Mayence.

5. Service to Christianity. Charles was a good Christian and a staunch supporter of the Pope. He left no stone unturned to propagate this faith. He spread Christianity forcibly among the barbaric tribes of Europe.

6. An Estimate of Charles. Charles was a man of very good qualities. He really deserves the title of "The Great". He possessed a charming and commanding personality. He was a man of wide vision, common sense, strong will and great capacity. He was a great warrior and an ideal leader for his soldiers. He was a great conqueror and an empire-builder who laid the foundation of the Holy Roman Empire. He was an able administrator who restored law and order and gave an efficient system of government to his subjects. He was a great patron of learning and architecture who greatly revived the intellectual activity. He was a benevolent despot who promoted industry, trade and commerce for the material welfare of his subjects. His work for the spread of Christianity is praiseworthy. He was one of the greatest rulers of the Middle Ages. It has been rightly remarked, *"His conquests and administration and his devotion to duty and welfare of his subjects set a shining example for others to follow."* About his greatness, **Dr. H. A. L. Fisher** also writes, *"Mounting the throne at a time, when the political future was dark and troubled, when the idea of authority had grown faint and the lamps of learning and literature were flickering to extinction, he called a vigorous halt to the forces of paganism, anarchy and ignorance"*.

Similarly **Prof. Emerson** says, "*He stands at the end of one age, and at the beginning of another, and what he did was the foundation of all future history of Europe.*"

SECTION 3—PAPACY AND THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE CHURCH AND THE STATE

In the Middle Ages the Pope was the head of the Church and the supreme authority in spiritual matters. He enjoyed great prestige among the masses. The church had landed property and paid no taxes. The Pope was considered to be the representative of God on earth and his position was more exalted than that of the king. This supremacy of the Pope is termed as Papacy.

1. **Causes of the Supremacy of the Church or Pope.** The following factors were responsible for the supremacy of the church in the Middle Ages :—

(1) *Efficient Organisation.* The church had an efficient and well-knit organisation. The Pope was the head of this organisation and exercised absolute authority over it. He was considered as the Viscar of God on earth. He had a Papal court at Rome. The powerful and efficient organisation of the church enabled it to reach and touch all classes of the people. It over-stepped all political boundaries and its influence was felt every where. The church claimed supremacy over the state and the rulers were considered as subjects of the Pope. High officials of the church occupied important positions in the state governments.

(2) *Discipline and Missionary zeal.* The clergymen were men of high character and led a disciplined life. They preached the faith with great missionary zeal and wielded great influence among the masses. The church employed various means to enforce discipline. Through '*excommunication*' anybody could be deprived of all the privileges of the church. Through '*Interdict*' the Pope could forbid all forms of public worship in a state. Through '*Inquisition*' the subjects could be put to torture.

(3) *Wealth.* The church owned property and had many sources of wealth. Kings and nobles granted it lands. The church could also levy tax, known as '*Tithe*' on its members.

(4) *Educated Clergymen.* Only the clergymen were educated during this period. The kings needed their services in matters of government where reading writing and accounting was required so they gained great influence in the state governments.

(5) *Services of the Church.* The church rendered many useful service to the society. It helped the people in religious and political matters. It performed many religious ceremonies for the faithful Christians. The church was responsible for the education of the young. It helped the poor, the rich and the needy persons. It

opened schools and hospitals for the people and as such it held great influence over them.

(6) *People's Support and Loyalty.* Because of the high moral standard and missionary zeal of the clergymen and the useful services of the church, the people were more loyal to the church than to the kings.

(7) *Preserved Culture in Dark Ages.* The barbaric tribes gave a fatal blow to the Holy Roman Empire during the Dark Ages and weakened the kings. But the organization of the church remained intact and it preserved the culture and civilization during this period. It taught morality and noble ideals of Christianity even to these barbarians and made them realize that their fate also depended upon the churches. Thus it lifted people out of darkness and savagery.

2. Struggle between the Church and the State. The struggle between the Church and the State started during the Middle Ages and continued for about 300 years.

Causes of the Struggle. The following causes led to this struggle :—

(1) The Holy Roman Empire grew out of the close relationship between the church and the state. Charles wanted the support of the Pope to make his position safe and secure and to win the loyalty of his subjects. The Pope also wanted to strengthen his position with the help of the king. But after the death of Charles the close *co-operation between the church and the state ended* and each began to take the advantage of the difficulties of the other and it led to a struggle between the two.

(2) Both the Emperor and the Pope began to *assert his superiority* over the other. Thus there arose a struggle between the two as to who was the superior of the two.

(3) Most of the clergymen received grants of land from the kings like nobles. The rulers began to claim the right of appointing not only of the clergymen but also of the other church officials. They even began to give ring and the staff—the symbols of church authority to the clergymen. This ceremony of giving the ring and the staff is known as '*Investiture*'. On the other hand, the Pope claimed this authority. He went a step further and declared that he had the authority to appoint not only the bishops but also the emperor of his choice. He claimed that he can even depose the emperor and order the subjects not to owe allegiance to him. Thus this right to control the clergymen served as the basis of struggle between the two.

(4) The church started a movement called the '*Cluniac Reformation*' in the 10th century. Through this movement it wanted to free itself from the control of the state and to assert its supremacy, power and prestige. But such an attempt was naturally opposed by various strong kings like Henry IV and Frederick the Great. So a severe strife started between the two.

(5) The emperors were of the view that the Pope should act only as the *spiritual head* and not interfere into the day-to-day affairs of the administration. Pope Gregory VII once declared that the church was like the sun and superior to the state which was like the moon and got its light from the sun (*i.e.*, church) so clash of interests led to the mutual struggle.

(6) The *attitude of the nobles* fanned the fire. They were selfish and always looked to their own interests. They were never loyal to one party and shifted their loyalty according to the situation. When the German nobles turned against the emperor, the Pope took undue advantage and began to instigate them against the emperor. This was not tolerated by the emperor.

Events of the Struggle. Due to the above causes there started a long struggle between the church and the state. This struggle lasted for three hundred years but even then it remained undecided in the long run.

(1) *Pope Gregory VII and Emperor Henry IV.* Pope Gregory VII issued a decree that no ruler can appoint any religious official. The Emperor of Germany, Henry IV, refused to abide by it and appointed a person of his choice as the Archbishop of Milan. He called the assembly of the bishops and excommunicated the Pope. On the other hand the Pope also excommunicated the Emperor. At this the German nobles and the people turned against Henry IV and supported the church. Ultimately Henry had to surrender, go to Rome bare-footed and repent for his action for three days continuously. The Pope pardoned him. But the struggle ensued once again when the Pope deposed Henry IV and the German princes elected a new emperor at his bidding. Henry IV invaded Italy and expelled the Pope from Rome. The new Pope Clement III crowned Henry IV as the Emperor.

(2) *Concordat of Worms, 1122 A.D.* After the death of Henry IV his son Henry V entered into a treaty (in 1122 A.D.) with Pope Paschal II. This treaty is known on the '*Concordat of Worms*'. According to this treaty the Pope was empowered to elect bishops and abbots and to give them the ring and the staff. On the other side the lands were to be granted to the clergy by the emperor and they were required to pay homage to him also. All elections in Germany were to take place in the presence of the Emperor. The bishops were, thus, placed under the dual control of the Pope and the Emperor. It was believed that they received spiritual rights from the Pope and the temporal privileges from the Emperor. But this Concordat of Worms failed to put an end to this struggle.

(3) *Frederick I and Pope Alexander III.* Pope Alexander III declared that Frederick I (Barbarossa) had got the crown with the grace of the Pope. This infuriated the Emperor and he asserted that both the Pope and the Emperor are equal and derive their authority from God. He also attacked Italy in 1186 A.D. and deposed the Pope. But the various towns of Italy formed the

Lombard League to support the Pope. This League succeeded in defeating the emperor and forcing him to accept the superiority of the Pope.

(iv) *Pope Innocent III.* After assuming the authority of the Pope in 1198, Innocent III, humbled all those kings and rivals who challenged his authority and who refused to obey his decrees. He brought to his knees the kings of France and even King John of England. In this way he asserted the supremacy of the Pope and greatly enhanced his power and prestige.

(v) *Frederick II and the Pope (1212-1250).* Frederick II (1212-1250 A.D.) also challenged the authority of the Pope and tried to conquer the estates of the church. But he was excommunicated more than once and was ultimately deposed in 1245 A.D. He died in 1250 A.D.

(vi) *Pope Boniface.* Pope Boniface issued a decree and ordered the clergymen not to pay taxes to the Emperor. This created bad blood between the Pope and the kings of England and France. When the Pope started his propaganda against the king of France he imprisoned the Pope. He declared a Frenchman as the Pope of Rome but did not allow him to live in Rome. Thus from 1305 to 1333 the Pope remained more or less under the domination of the Kings of France. After 1377 A.D. the Pope was allowed to shift to Rome.

This struggle between the church and the state though lasted for more than three centuries but it remained undecisive and proved suicidal both for the church and the state. It weakened the German Empire also.

Results of the Struggle. (i) The attempts of the different Popes to control the spiritual as well as the temporal authority, merely *exposed the weakness* of church and the worldly ambitions of the Popes. It revealed the helplessness and the hollowness of the church and degraded it in the eyes of the people.

(ii) The Emperors failed to review the stories of the Roman Empire. The German Emperors tried to establish a vast empire and conquer Italy. But they completely failed to conquer Italy and thus wasted much of their time, money and energy for nothing. By doing so they came into conflict with the church, *weakened their own power* and failed to set up a vast empire and a strong central government either in Germany or in Italy. As a result of this strife the nobles in Germany set up a number of small independent states. It gave a fatal blow to the unity of Germany and paved the way towards feudalism.

(iii) This struggle led to the growth of *nationalism*. The efforts of the German Emperors to create a vast empire roused the national feelings among the people of certain countries and they began to oppose the foreign domination tooth and nail. On the other hand, as Burns put it, "*Papal meddling in the internal affairs of*

different countries tended to strengthen the growth of nationalism particularly in England and France."

(iv) This strife paved the way for *Protestant Reformation* indirectly in the 16th century. It exposed the weakness, vices and evils of the church that had crept into it. The people lost their faith in the degraded clergymen who cared more for their worldly interests and ignored their religious duties. To cleanse the church of its vices the reformers of the 16th century launched the movement which is known as the '*Reformation Movement*' in the history of the world.

SECTION 4—THE CRUSADES (1096-1291 A.D.)

The Crusades were the holy wars fought by the Christians with the Muslims between 1096 to 1291 A.D. to save their churches and the Cross. It was a conflict between the Muslims and the Christians or between the Cross and the Crescent. Kings and knights, priests and peasants all took part in them. They were known as crusaders and they wore a garb, a grey cloak with an attached hood and a red cross on their breasts.

1. **Causes of the Crusades.** The causes of the crusades were as follows :—

(1) *Ill-treatment of the Pilgrims.* The Christians used to go for pilgrimage to the holy places connected with the life and activities of Jesus Christ especially Jerusalem and Bethlehem in Palestine. But when the Seljuk Turks won them in the 11th century (1076 A.D.) they began to harass them a lot. They were fanatical and intolerant. They ill-treated the pilgrims, persecuted, imprisoned and enslaved them. So the Christians joined hand to save their holy places and the pilgrims from this harassment.

(2) *Construction of Mosques.* The Turks converted many churches into stables and constructed big Mosques beside them. A stately mosque, the '*Mosque of Omar*' was erected on the site of a Temple at Jerusalem.

(3) *Cruelty to Christians.* The Turks committed inhuman atrocities on the Christians. They harassed and humiliated them. Once they dragged the Patriarch of Jerusalem through the streets by his hair, threw him into the prison and kept him there until he had paid a heavy ransom. These tales of cruelty roused the whole Christian world against the Muslims.

(4) *Publicity by St. Peter.* A hermit of France had suffered humiliation at the hands of the Turks. He painted the sufferings of the Christians and the pilgrims everywhere in the churches, streets and high ways. The Pope and the monks also did the same. They appealed to the people to combine together to carry on holy wars against the infidels. St. Peter appealed to the people saying, "*He who strikes a blow to rescue the Holy Sepulchre (or Tomb) has thrown open the door of*

heaven for himself." His preachings produced the desired effect and the people became ready to sacrifice their lives for the holy cause.

(5) *Struggle for Supremacy.* The Muslims had established their hold in various countries of the Europe. The Christians wanted to put an end to their influence. There ensued a struggle for supremacy between the two. The Christians wanted to expel the Muslims from Spain, Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica and bring those areas under their domination. A war was inevitable under these circumstances.

(6) *Closing of Trade Routes.* The big merchants of Venice and Genoa carried on their trade through Bagdad and Egypt. As the Turks captured these places they closed the trade-routes for these traders. It was but natural for the Christian traders to turn against the Turks.

(7) *Appeal by Byzantium.* The Turks wanted to conquer the Eastern Roman Empire of Byzantium. They defeated the Byzantium army, captured many cities and had their eyes on Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman empire. The Pope called a great Council at Clermont in France in 1096. He urged the Christians in a forceful voice to take up arms against the Turks. Thousands pledged themselves to take part in the Holy War.

(8) *Motives of the Pope.* Pope Urban II joined the Holy War because he wanted to put an end to the division among the Catholic princes of Europe and increase the power and influence of Papacy. At the same time he wanted to get rid of the Knights who were creating chaos and disorder in Europe. -

(9) *Co-operation of the East Roman Emperor.* The Emperor of the East Roman Empire of Byzantium readily co-operated with the Pope and the crusaders because he wanted to save his empire from the attacks of the Turks and recover from them his territory lost in the Asia Minor.

(10) *Co-operation of the Feudal Lords.* The knights and the feudal lords took part in the crusades to show their courage and fighting skill. The soldiers joined them to gain large estates and capture rich booty.

(11) *Help extended by the Masses.* The general public also reacted favourably to the Pope's call due to various reasons. Their motives varied. Some went to regain the Holy Land from the Turks, others to atone for their sins and some others just for adventure. The criminals joined the Holy war so that their crimes might be pardoned. The debtors wanted that their debts should be cancelled. Merchants took part in it and provided ships to the crusaders to increase the prospects of their trade and commerce. In the words of **John Conard Appel**, "*The knights and rulers forgot their quarrels and the Western Europe was united in a common cause.*"

2. Events of the Crusades. (1) *The First Crusade, 1099 A.D.* Hearing the call of Peter and Pope Urban II the kings, knights, nobles, bishops, oldmen, women, children, rich and the beggar joined the Holy War. These disorganized bands of the masses marched towards Jerusalem under the leadership of Peter and a Kinght called Walter. They had to face many hardships and many of them died on the way. They were also killed in large number in Jerusalem. Ultimately they succeeded in capturing Jerusalem and at once they established a Christian state there in 1099 A.D. Jerusalem remained under their control from 1099 to 1187 A.D.

(2) *The Second Crusade, 1187 A.D.* After capturing Jerusalem the Christians divided it into three states of Tripoli, Edessa and Antioch. The Turks, led by Saladin, conquered Edessa in 1187 A.D. with the help of the ruler of Egypt and killed 30,000 Christians. This led to the Second Crusade. The Holy Roman Emperor Conrad III and King Louis VII of France joined the crusaders with the bands of their kinghts. But they were defeated by the Turks in Asia Minor. The Second Crusade failed and Jerusalem fell into the hands of the Muslims once again in 1187 A.D.

(3) *The Third Crusade, 1189 A.D.* The Third Crusade was started by Emperor Frederick I of Germany, King Philip II of France and King Richard I of England in 1189 A.D. Frederick was drowned before reaching Palestine. The King of France fell out with the King of England and returned. King Richard I failed in his mission and he entered into a treaty with Saladin. It was settled that the Christians would be allowed to visit Jerusalem and a narrow strip of sea-coast on the borders of Palestine will be considered the Holy Land of the Christians.

(4) *The Fourth Crusade, 1202 A.D.* The Fourth Crusade started in 1202 A.D. The merchants of Venice took part in it and the crusaders were led by Pope Innocent III because he was against the treaty made by King Richard I during the Third Crusade. The crusaders were ultimately successful in establishing their hold on Constantinople.

The Christians continued their Holy wars upto 1291 A.D. In order to free Palestine from the Muslim bondage, they embarked on a new scheme. In 1212 A.D. they sent an army of 30,000 children under the command of German youth Nicholas and another of 20,000 children under the leadership of Stephen, a twelve years old shepherd of France. It is known as Children's Crusade but it failed miserably. Many children died of hunger and cold. Most of them were killed and sold away as slaves. Various other crusades were also carried on after the Children's Crusade of 1212 A.D. but they also did not succeed and the Christians failed to re-capture Palestine.

3. Results of the Crusades. There is no doubt that these Crusades proved very harmful for the Christians. They were killed in large number and their cities and property were destroyed. This exposed the weakness of the church and gave a severe blow to the

power and prestige of Papacy. But they produced significant results in cultural, economic and social spheres as well.

(1) *Effects on Civilization and Culture.* Before the Crusades the Europeans led an isolated life. The Crusades shook Europe from its deep slumber and broke their isolation. They now learnt many new things and ideas to enrich themselves. They gave Christians the opportunity of travelling in foreign lands which had a different civilization than their own. They entered into a new world, found new climates, strange dresses, and different customs. There they found new objects of comforts and luxury such as '*divans*', sofas, jars, precious stones, etc. In this way, the Crusades helped in the development of European civilization and culture. Also there came a great change in their way of living.

(2) *Increase in Trade.* These Crusades gave a great impetus to trade, commerce and industry and greatly increased the trade between the East and the West. They created a demand for ships and as such they encouraged the ship-building industry. New commercial relations were established between the eastern and western countries. The ships brought into Europe many new articles of use such as silk, muslin, cotton, sugar, textile fabrics, rugs, pottery, glass-ware, spices, perfumes, medicines, etc. The cities of Venice and Genoa were greatly enriched due to these Crusades. According to **Schwill** "*It would not be too much to say that the Crusades made Europe rich.*"

(3) *Decline of Feudalism.* A great many lords sold their lands in order to get money for joining the Crusades. In doing so they also freed the serfs. Many of the nobles were killed and those who survived were reduced to poverty. Thus Crusades lessened the power of the feudal lords. They gave a fatal blow to feudalism which formed the basis of the political, economic and social life in the Middle Ages

(4) *Intellectual Development.* The civilization of Western Europe gained a lot from these new sources of culture. They learnt new ideas from the East. Paper, Mariner's compass, magnet, etc. were now introduced in the West. The Arabic numerals, Algebra, Oriental Philosophy, etc. reached Europe through the Crusades. The Europeans began to take a keen interest in literature, arts, sciences of the East. It led to their intellectual development and increased their knowledge.

(5) *Geographical Explorations.* The Crusades encouraged the spirit of adventure and aroused an interest in the study of Geography. They now began to discover other lands. Marco Polo was one of the most famous travellers of the Middle Ages. He travelled from Constantinople to China. His accounts of travel increased the interest of Europe in foreign lands and the Europeans undertook long voyages in the 15th and 16th centuries and discovered many lands in Africa, Asia and America.

(6) *Military Improvement.* According to John Conard, 'From the East the crusaders learned new ways of fighting and new types of weapons. Because of the effectiveness of the new weapons, nobles had to build stronger castles than those of wood. They also fostered the spirit of bravery and chivalry.'

(7) *Decline in the Autocratic Power of the Church.* The crusades gave a great set-back to Christianity. The failure of crusades exposed the weakness of the church and people began to lose faith in it. This proved fatal to the power and prestige of Papacy.

(8) *Paved the way for Monarchy.* The crusades gave a great set-back to the power and prestige of Papacy and in this way paved the way for the establishment of strong monarchies.

It has been rightly remarked, "*The crusades hastened the decline of the Middle Ages in Europe and advent of Modern Age*". According to H.A. Davies, "*The East was helping to mould the civilization of the west through the influence of Moors of Spain. The crusades accelerated the process which had already begun to work.*"

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Holy Roman Empire

(1) *Meaning of the Holy Roman Empire.*

(2) *Circumstances leading to the Holy Roman Empire.* Co-operation between the Kings and the Popes ; Work of Frankish Kings like Clovis, Charles Martel and Charles the Great or Charlemagne.

(3) *Chief Features.* (1) Aimed at defending the church and Christianity ; (2) Close relationship between the church and the State ; (3) Rome was nominal centre of the empire ; (4) Roman Emperor was a German King ; (5) Pope and Emperor regarded themselves superior to each other.

(4) *How far is it justified to call it a Holy Roman Empire ?* Empire was neither Holy nor Roman.

(5) *Failure of the Holy Roman Empire.* (1) Vast Empire ; (2) Fatal for the unity of Germany , (3) Weakened Economic condition ; (4) Struggle between the Emperor and the Popes.

(6) *Success of the Holy Roman Empire.* (1) Weakened the evils of feudalism ; (2) Protected Europe from the invasions of the barbaric tribes, (3) Protected Europe from the invasions of the Turks..

SECTION 2 :—Charles the Great (768—814 A.D.)

(1) His rise to Power ; (2) His conquests and extent of the Empire ; (3) His administration—Counties, Duchies and Marches ; Assemblies of nobles and bishops ; Laws or Capitularies , Missi Dominici ; (4) Promotion of Learning and Education , (5) Architecture ; (6) Christianity ; (7) His Estimate—He was really great.

SECTION 3 :—Papacy—Its meaning

1. **Causes of the Supremacy of the Church.** (1) Efficient organization ; (2) Discipline and Missionary Zeal ; (3) Wealth ; (4) Educated clergymen ; (5) Services of the church ; (6) People's Support and Loyalty , (7) Preserved culture in the Dark Ages.

2. **Struggle between the Church and the State.** (i) *Causes.* No close relationship after Charles , Each asserted its superiority ; Investiture ; Popes's interference in the administration ; Attitude of the nobles.

(ii) *Events of the Struggle.* Pope Gregory VII and Emperor Henry IV ; Concordat of Worms, 1122 A.D. ; Frederick I and Pope Alexander III ; Pope Innocent III ; Frederick II and the Pope ; Pope Boniface.

(iii) *Results.* Exposed weakness of the church ; Weakened the power of the Emperors ; Growth of Nationalism ; Protestant Reformation.

SECTION 4 :—The Crusades

Holy wars fought between the Christians and the Muslims.

1. **Causes.** (i) Ill-treatment of the Pilgrims ; (ii) Construction of mosques ; (iii) Cruelty to Christians ; (iv) Publicity by St. Peter ; (v) Struggle for Supremacy ; (vi) Closing of Trade-Routes ; (vii) Appeal by Byzantium ; (viii) Motives of the Pope ; (ix) Co-operation of the East Roman Empire ; (x) Motives of the Feudal Lords ; (xi) Motives of the other People.

2. **Events of the Crusades.** (i) 1st Crusade and capture of Jerusalem by the Christians ; (ii) Failure of the Second Crusade and recapture of Jerusalem by the Turks ; (iii) Third Crusade and treaty of Richard I with Saladin ; (iv) Fourth Crusade and Christians' hold on Constantinople , (v) Childrens' Crusade ; (vi) Christians failed to capture Palestine.

3. **Results of the Crusades.** (i) Effects on civilization and culture ; (ii) Increase in Trade ; (iii) Decline of Feudalism ; (iv) Intellectual development ; (v) Geographical Explorations ; (vi) Military Improvement ; (vii) Decline in the Autocratic Power of the Church , (viii) Paved the way for Monarchy.

University and Other Important Questions

1 What do you mean by the Holy Roman Empire ? What were its chief features ? How did it serve the people ?

2 Trace the history of the Holy Roman Empire. Do you agree with the view that the Holy Roman Empire was neither 'Holy' nor 'Roman'. Substantiate your answer.

3 Make a critical estimate of Charlemagne and explain the concept of the 'Holy Roman Empire'. (B U 1954)

4. Describe the achievements of Charlemagne as a conqueror, administrator and reformer. (B U. 1958)
 5. Give reasons for the supremacy of the Church in the Middle Ages in Europe. (B U. 1965)
 6. Examine the causes and consequences of the conflict between the Papacy and the Empire during the Middle Ages (B U. 1952)
 7. Why were the Crusades fought? Show their influence on feudalism, commerce and culture of Western Europe. (B U. 1966)
 8. Discuss the causes and importance of the Crusades.
 9. Give brief answers to the following :—
 - (1) Charlemagne (2) Concordat of Worms (3) Struggle between Pope Gregory VII and Emperor Henry IV (4) Children's Crusade (5) Causes of the Crusades (6) Results of Crusades. (7) Rise of Papacy (8) Investiture Struggle.
 10. Fill in the Blanks :—
 - (1) — was the first Bishop of Rome.
 - (2) — gave publicity to the cruelty of the Muslims over Christians.
 - (3) — called the assembly of the Christians at Clermont in 1092 A.D
 - (4) Palestine fell into the hands of the Christians in — A.D.
 11. Answer in 'Yes' or No —
 - (1) The Holy Roman Empire is so-called because the Pope crowned Charles.
 - (2) St. Paul was the first Bishop of Rome.
 - (3) Crusades were fought between the Popes and the Emperors.
 - (4) The Christians were successful in the Crusades at the end.
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Renaissance and Age of Discovery

SECTION 1—RENAISSANCE: MEANING AND CAUSES RESPONSIBLE FOR IT

According to **H.A. Davies**, "*It is not possible to draw a hard and fast line of demarcation between the Middle Ages and Modern Times*". But historians generally agree that the year 1453, when the Turks conquered Constantinople, marks the end of the Middle Ages and the advent of the Modern Age. Three great events, the Renaissance, the Geographical Discoveries of the 15th and 16th centuries and Reformation mark a definite transition from the Middle Ages to the Modern Age.

1 Meaning of Renaissance. The word Renaissance means 'rebirth' or the revival of the study of the Greek and the Roman classics. According to **John Conard**, during the period, called Renaissance, most of the Western Europe turned again to the culture of the ancient Greeks and the Romans. They studied Greek and Latin; they admired, copied and drew inspiration from Greek and Roman sculpture and architecture. They developed a new culture based on that of Medieval Europe to which they added ideas and inspirations, gained from the Greek and Roman civilizations. It stood for an intellectual, literary, artistic and scientific movement which widened the mental horizon of man. According to **W.N. Weech** "*the revival of learning was not merely a mechanical return to the classics of Greece and Rome; it involved rather a fresh application of Greek methods of thought to the problems of universe, combined with a new respect for scientific truth and accuracy.*"

The church completely dominated the life of the people of the medieval age. No one could question the authority of the church and the religious dogmas. The Renaissance encouraged the *spirit of enquiry* and ushered in the age of reason, original thinking and scientific investigation. The people began to question the authority of the church and formulate new theories and principles. The Renaissance stood for creative and adventurous spirit which touched all fields of human thought and activity. **Prof. H.A. Davies** writes, "*The word Renaissance signifies the rebirth of freedom loving, adventurous thought of man, which during the Middle Ages, had been fettered and imprisoned by religious authority*".

The Renaissance marked a reaction against medieval culture and created *spirit of humanism*. It opposed the dogmatic attitude, blind faith and theological subjects and laid great stress on humanities and focussed its attention on things of this world. Therefore Dr. J.E. Swain writes, "*The human, the natural and the sensual were given preference over the ascetical, the supernatural and the theological.*"

In short, Renaissance was a *great movement* which spread over Western Europe over two centuries and revived man's power of original thinking on scientific lines and encouraged him to express himself freely and fearlessly in all matters concerning life. It infused a new spirit of fresh thinking and activity. In short, intellectualism, humanism and spirit of enquiry, are the chief features of the Renaissance. According to Dr. J.E. Swain "*Renaissance is a collective term used to include all the intellectual changes that were in evidence at the close of the Middle Ages and at the beginning of modern times.*" Similarly Prof. S.R. Sharma writes, "*It may be more truly described as the Age of Expansion, geographical, commercial, intellectual, artistic and moral. It was not so much or merely a rebirth of learning which is usually implied, but an all round awakening and broadening of the human horizons.*" According to Pt. Nehru, "*The Renaissance means the revival of learning and development of art, science, literature and European languages.*"

2. Causes of the Renaissance. The following causes were responsible for the Renaissance movement :—

(1) *Original Thinkers.* Original thinkers like Abelard, Roger Bacon, Thomas Aquinas were the fore-runners of the Renaissance. In the medieval age the church dominated the human mind and activities and all the provinces of life. It was difficult to question its authority. But the original thinkers revolutionized thought and laid a great stress on the spirit of enquiry, reasoning, independent thinking and scientific investigation. Thomas Aquinas declared, "*The prime author and mover of the universe is intelligence.*" Abelard was the first great and original thinker to use the power of reason. Roger Bacon made a bold appeal for the free use of powers of mind. He said, "*If I had my way, I should burn all the books of Aristotle, for the study of them can only lead to loss of time, produce error, and increase ignorance.*" Thus the spirit of enquiry, original and free thinking gave great impetus to the Renaissance movement.

(2) *Crusades.* The crusades brought the people of Europe, who were living in the Dark Ages, into contact with the people of Asia whose culture and civilization was already highly developed. The crusades brought to the Western Europe ideas of the East which stirred men's imaginations and minds. It widened their outlook on life and destroyed blind faith and dogmatic attitude. Now they ceased to believe anything which did not appeal to their reason.

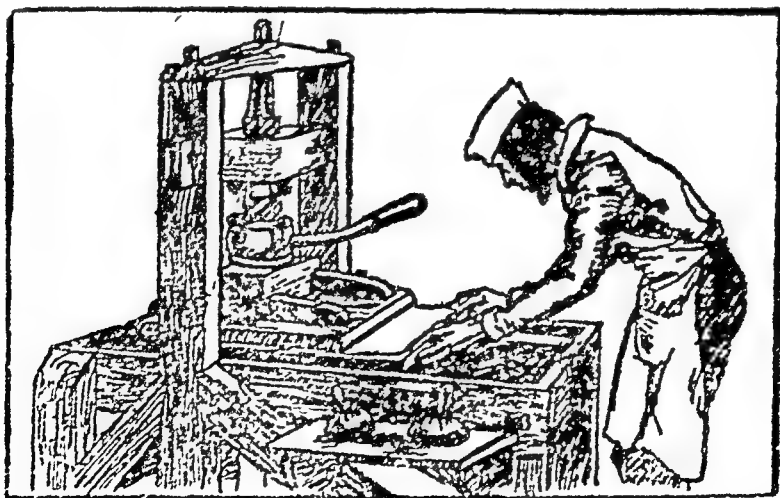
(3) *Decline of Feudalism.* The decline of feudalism gave a great relief to the peasants, craftsmen and traders and developed in them a spirit of free thinking. They now devoted their leisure time

to the development of art and literature, etc. They developed a habit of free and fearless thinking which greatly helped the spirit of the Renaissance.

(4) *Free Towns.* The crusades and decline of feudalism encouraged trade and industries and led to the establishment of free and flourishing towns and to the rise of the middle class which played an important role in Europe. These towns grew into wealthy Renaissance cities which became the centres of art and learning. The middle class became wealthy and gained much in social status. They opened new schools for their children which were quite free from the dominance of the church. The New Learning and education liberalised their ideas and broadened their outlook and gave a severe blow to blind faiths.

(5) *Geographical Explorations.* The Navigators of Portugal and Spain played an important part in the geographical explorations. When Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks in 1453 A.D. and they shut down the trade-routes between the West and the East, the European traders and navigators felt the need of discovering new sea-routes. Prince Henry the Navigator, of Portugal discovered a sea-route to Africa. Bartholomew Diaz was successful in reaching the Cape of Good Hope at the southern most point of Africa. Vasco-de-Gama discovered India. Columbus discovered America in 1492 A.D. These geographical explorations and discoveries brought the people of Western Europe into contact with the people of Asia and thus greatly broadened their outlook and forced them to give up their blind faiths.

(6) *Invention of the Printing Press.* Before the invention of the Printing Press, it was very difficult to spread knowledge because the books were written by hand and they were also very costly. Knowledge



A Printing Press of Caxton's time.

was the privilege of the wealthy people only, but the things changed with the invention of the printing press. The first printing press was

set up in Germany in 1465 A.D. by Gutenberg. Later on Caxton introduced it in England in 1476 A.D. Printing presses were also set up in Italy and Hungary. They helped in publishing books in large number. The books reached the common people and they went a long way in spreading knowledge. The people now began to understand religion in its real sense. Increase in education also gave a great impetus to the literary activity of the Renaissance and widened the mental horizon of the people.

(7) *Development of Science.* Development of science created the spirit of enquiry and encouraged original thinking on scientific lines. It gave a severe blow to old beliefs, blind-faiths, dogmatic attitude and superiority of the church. Roger Bacon contemplated the use of horse-less carriages and flying machines. Leonard placed before the people his new scientific ideas and discoveries fearlessly. Copernicus proved that the earth moves round the sun. Galileo invented telescope. These inventions broadened the mental outlook of the people and put an end to old beliefs and traditions.

(8) *Turks' Victory over Constantinople.* Constantinople was the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire and was a great centre of Greek and Roman cultures. It contained the valuable manuscripts of the Greek and the Roman writers. But Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks in 1453 A.D. Many Greek writers were thus forced to shift to Rome with their manuscripts. Rome then became the centre of the Greek culture. It has been rightly remarked, "*Greece has not fallen, she has migrated to Italy*". They began to spread



Greek Scholars reaching Italy from Constantinople.

Greek knowledge and culture and in this way revived the interest of the people in the study of Greek philosophy, science, art and literature. The revival of the learning of Greek classics paved the way for the Renaissance.

(9) *Spread of Humanism.* The medieval writers paid a great attention to theological subjects and laid a great stress on future life. On the other hand the humanists like Petrarch emphasized the study of the Greek literature concerning man, his nature and interests. They laid a great stress on the present life. They also began to criticize the church, the priests and the old beliefs and rituals. As a result of their teachings, the people developed a critical outlook and a spirit of enquiry. They began to think and express themselves freely and fearlessly. Thus Humanism also gave a great impetus to Renaissance.

(10) *Co-operation of Kings, Nobles and Wealthy People.* Kings, Popes, nobles, and wealthy persons also patronised this movement. Greek scholars adorned the courts of Francis I of France, Henry VIII of England, Charles V of Spain, etc. Pope Nicholas V and Leo X were great lovers of the classical art, literature and music. They became the patrons of this movement and encouraged the revival of Graeco-Roman classics. Wealthy people began to buy antiques and patronised artists to decorate their houses. The Medici family of Florence also patronized the Renaissance artists, painters, sculptors and learned men such as Michael Angelo, Leonardo, Bertoldo etc. Thus the patronage extended by the kings, nobles and wealthy people to Greek scholars also led to the rise of the Renaissance Movement.

SECTION 2—ORIGIN, GROWTH AND SPREAD OF RENAISSANCE

1. **Origin of Renaissance in Italy.**—The Renaissance was a cultural movement which initially started in Italy. Then it spread to other countries of Europe. Many European countries invited the learned men of Italy to their countries. Also the students and scholars of these countries went to Italy, they drank the new wine of the Renaissance and on their return spread the light of knowledge in their own countries. In this connection Prof. Fisher observes, "*During 200 years (1340-1540) the cities of Italy produced an out put of art, scholarship, and literature, such as the world has not seen since the glory of ancient Athens.*"

Causes. Various causes were responsible for the origin of Renaissance in Italy. Rome had been the centre of Roman civilization and culture. The ancient civilization had never died out in Italy. Roman literature and learning had been preserved in the monasteries and many important buildings of ancient Rome still stood there. They attracted the scholars and artists of other countries and gave inspiration to them. According to Dr. Fisher "*Here finally were ruins, inscriptions, coins and medals inviting and attracting the enquiry of the Scholar.*"

(2) The East-West trade made the Italian cities of Venice, Milan, Florence and others, quite rich and prosperous. The trade gave them *wealth*. The commercial-minded people of Italy adopted a secular attitude towards life and fostered the new spirit and learning. According to John Conard, "*Never before had there been so large a middle class with so much money. This brought them leisure to seek culture.*"

(3) Various rulers of Italy, like Cosimo Medici and Lorenzo Medici patronized scholars and artists and gave impetus to Renaissance.

(4) When Constantinople was conquered by the Turks, the Greek scholars migrated to Italy with their manuscripts and art treasures. They created new spirits and interest for the old classics. Remarkable master pieces of art and literature were produced under their guidance. There started a reaction against medievalism and this factor also greatly helped the growth of Renaissance in Italy.

(5) Like rulers and merchants, some of the Popes also patronized learning. Popes like Nicholas V, Julius II and Leo X patronised many artists and scholars, and championed the cause of Renaissance. Italy produced scholars and artists with versatile genius. Florence became the artistic and intellectual capital of Italy and Rome became a great centre of learning, art, literature, culture and civilization.

It has been rightly remarked, "*Just as wealth and freedom were necessary to the flowering of genius in Athens, so riches and self government in the Italian cities provided the soil in which Renaissance ideas flourished. Indeed, Florence produced such a brilliant Renaissance culture that it became known as the 'Athens of Italy'.*"

2. Growth and Spread of Renaissance—

Renaissance in Literature. In the Middle Ages the literature was dominated by religion and was written in Latin. But the Renaissance writers wrote about man, his interests and nature. They became interested in this world rather than in future life as the scholars of the Middle Ages had been. During the Middle Ages all the writings were in Latin but the writers of this era used the language of the people (vernacular) and the language of the people became the language of the literature.

(1) *Literature in Italy.* Machiavelli was the great political writer of Italy. He developed political ideas and expressed them in his chief work '*The Prince*' which served as a guide for the rulers. Dante's '*Divine Comedy*' is an epic poem. Though its theme is the state of the soul after death, yet it reveals human love, love of country and a desire for a free and united Italian nation. It helps us to understand the religious and social life of the day. Petrarch, a great scholar and writer, has been called 'the father of humanism'. His sonnets and lyrics made Italy supreme in European literature. His poems dealt with the economic, social and political aspects of

man's life. He collected all the classics of Rome and roused the interest of people in the writings of Livy, Virgil and Cicero. *Ariosto* and *Tasso* were also famous poets of Italy. They composed '*Orlando Furioso*' and '*Jerusalem Delivered*' respectively. *Boccaccio* was the father of Italian prose. His greatest work was '*Decameron*', a collection of 100 short stories which is considered as one of the world's greatest books.

(2) *Literature in England.* English literature reached the height of its glory in the Renaissance era. *Chaucer* was the father of English poetry. '*The Canterbury Tale*' is his outstanding work. *Thomas More* was the author of '*Utopia*'. It was written in Latin and contained the criticism of the society and government of the day. *Francis Bacon* was a famous essay writer. *Shakespeare*, *Ben Jonson*, *Marlowe* were the renowned dramatists. Shakespeare's works have never been excelled in any language. '*Paradise Lost*' is an immortal work of *Milton*. *Spencer* is the author of the graceful poem named '*Faerie Queene*'.



Shakespeare

(3) *Literature in France.* *Francois Rabelais* and *Michael de Montaigne* were strong and vigorous poets and essay-writers of France.

(4) *Literature in Germany.* *Martin Luther* made great contribution to German literature through his translation of the Bible.

(5) *Literature in Holland.* *Erasmus* was the greatest Renaissance scholar of Holland and '*The Praise of Folly*' is his immortal work. In it he has condemned the evils of the church and atrocities of the clergymen.

(6) *Literature in Spain and Portugal.* *Cervantez* was the most important Renaissance writer of Spain. He gave to the world his mighty work '*Don Quixote*' in which he had made fun of old chivalry. *Lope de Vega* was the famous dramatist and *Calderon* was the greatest Spanish poet of Renaissance. Portuguese writer *Camoens* has described the wonderful Voyages of *Vasco De-Gama* in his immortal epic *Lusiads*.

According to **John Conard** "Throughout Europe there was a great out-pouring of literature as men with new ideas expressed themselves through their writings." This paved the way for national literature of high order and national political institutions.

Renaissance in Arts. Art in the Middle Ages was dominated by the church. It attached great importance to moral virtues,

and mysteries of faith. It was used to decorate cathedrals. Its subjects were Christ, Mary and the saints. It was not realistic and natural. But the Renaissance art was dominated by the spirit of naturalism and humanism. Great stress was laid on beauty, grace, elegance, harmony of shades and balanced form. It was real and life-like. The artists were interested in men and their activities in this world.

(1) *The Art of Painting.* Though the themes were still religious yet the figures were true to life and the painters attached great



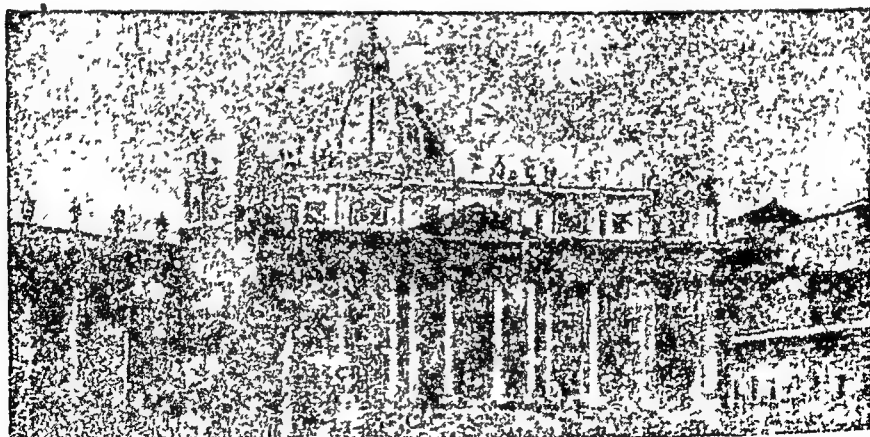
Raphael's Sistine Madonna

importance to the beauty of the human body. Paintings known as frescoes were painted on plaster walls. Oil-painting was also invented. The Italian painters Cimabue and Giotto paved the way for new school. They combined homely incidents with religious themes. Their paintings reflected a sense of humour and love for realism. Though the subject matter was Christian yet the spirit of humanism prevailed in them. Leonardo de Vinci was a versatile genius of Florence (in Italy). He was a painter, sculptor, architect, engineer and a scientist. His 'Mona Lisa', 'The Last Supper', 'The Virgin and the Child' are the masterpieces of art. They reveal his mastery on colour, shade, light and background. They are matchless in revealing inner beauty and grace. Michael Angelo was another genius of many talents. He was a painter, sculptor, architect and

poet. He was famous for his remarkable frescoes on the ceiling of Sistine Chapel. According to Dr. J.E. Swain "*Grandeur of design, tragic driving force and deep religious emotion make him unique as an artist*". His '*Last Judgement*' is his master-piece of art. Raphael was also a renowned painter, poet, sculptor and architect. '*Sistine Madonna*' was his masterpiece in painting. In the words of Dr. J.E. Swain, "*Its beauty of composition and its life like Charm have made it one of the most outstanding paintings in the World*". Titian of Venice excelled in oil-painting and had great mastery over light, shade and colouring. Besides these Italian painters *Albrecht Durer* and *Holbein* of Germany, *Velasquez*, *Murillo* and *El Greco* of Spain, *Rubbens* and *Van* of Holland were the magnificent painters of the Renaissance era.

(2) *Art of Sculpture*. The sculptors of the Middle Ages carved faces, hands and draperies but the form of the human body could not be detected under the draperies. The Renaissance sculptors studied the human body and knew how the muscles and joints worked so that they could make their figures more life-like. A famous sculptor named *Lorenzo Ghiberti* made the doors of Baptistry of Florence. Michael Angelo was of the view that they were fit to be the doors of the Paradise. The Statue of *St. George* in Florence, the Statues of *St. Mark* in Venice and *Group of Young Angels* reveal the artistic skill of the sculptor *Donatello*. These masterpieces are natural—and life-like. The huge Statues of *David* in Florence, Statues of *Moses* and *Pieta* chiselled out by *Michael Angelo* are really praiseworthy. The Italian sculptors were invited to England, France and Spain and they spread the Renaissance over the whole of the Western Europe.

(8) *Renaissance in Architecture*. The architects of Italy discarded the Gothic style and took inspiration from the Classical archi-



St Peter's Cathedral (A Specimen of the Renaissance Architecture).

ture of the Greeks and the Romans. *Alberti*, *Manetti*, *Brunelleschi* and *Michael Angelo* were the famous Renaissance architects. Great churches like St. Peter's at Rome, St. Paul's at London, St. Mark's

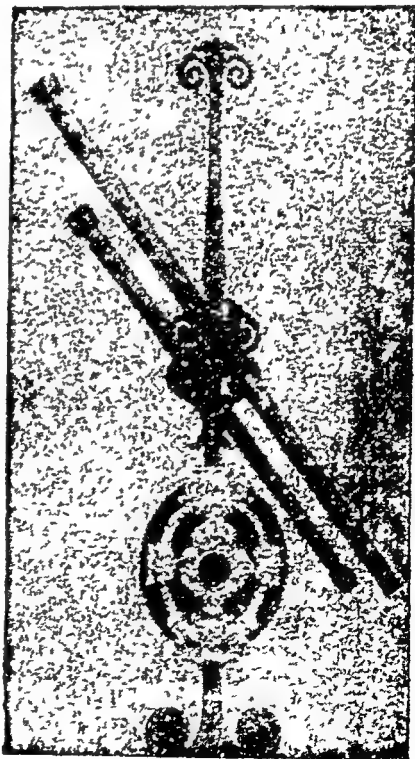
at Venice are examples of the new type. The dome was used but it was made taller and more graceful than the Roman dome. Greek porches and pillars were also used. Angelo designed the dome of the Church of St. Peter. The Pitti Palace in Florence, the Farnese Palace in Rome are the best examples of the Renaissance secular architecture.

(4) *Renaissance in Music.* Music flourished along with other arts but it was free from classical influence. Old and crude instruments were discarded and Violin and Piano became popular. Though music was still dominated by religion yet great stress was laid on harmony and sweetness. *Palestrina* was the leading musician of the Roman School and his '*Book of Masses*' which was finally composed in 1554 A.D. has been used ever since. *Giovanni Gabrieli* and *Adrian Willaert* were the famous musicians of the School of Venice.

About the Renaissance arts **John Conard** writes, "*The arts of the Renaissance have never been surpassed. They showed life in all its aspects. Joy and sorrow, saintliness and worldliness, wealth and poverty were depicted. Many different materials were used e.g. paint, bronze, stone, porcelain and wood. Whatever their material or tools, the artists of the Renaissance beautified their world, and ours.*"

Renaissance in Science. Feudalism, domination of the church and blind-faiths of the people in super-naturalism, mysteries and superstitions, stood in the way of progress in science. *Roger Bacon* was the first person to lay stress on original thinking and scientific investigations. This led to the development of scientific spirit and new inventions which brought about a revolution in political, economic, social and cultural life.

(1) *Astronomy.* According to Ptolemy's system the sun, the moon and other stars moved round the earth. But a scientist of Poland named *Copernicus* (1473-1543) proved that the earth was round and the earth, the moon and other stars moved round the sun in a circle. Later on a German scientist *John Kepler* (1571-1630) proved that the earth and other planets move round the sun not in a circle but in elliptical orbits. The Italian scientist, *Galileo* (1564-1642) invented a telescope. *Sir Isaac Newton* (1642-1727) discovered the Law of Gravitation.



Galileo's Telescope

(2) *Physics*. *Gilbert* (1540-1603) carried on experiments concerning the properties of magnet and paved the way for the study of electricity. *Stevin* (1548-1620) discovered the Law of parallelogram of forces. *Galileo* was not only an astronomer but also a great physicist. Aristotle believed that heavier bodies fall at a rapid speed than those of the lighter bodies. Galileo challenged this theory and successfully proved that the speed of falling bodies depended upon distance and not on weight. He also invented thermometer and hydrostatic balance and laid the foundation of modern dynamics.

(3) *Chemistry and Medicine*. *Vesalius* (1514-1564) and *Harvey* (1578-1657) laid the foundation of modern anatomy. Vesalius gave a correct picture of human body while Harvey proved that the functioning of human body depends on the circulation of blood. *Paracelsus* (1493-1541) proved close connection between medicine and chemistry and used chemicals for medicinal purposes. *Cordus* (1515-1544) prepared ether from alcohol and sulphuric acid. *Helmont* (1577-1644) discovered carbon dioxide.

(4) *Mathematics*. The Arabs gave Algebra and numerals to the West. Western scientists discovered different kinds of equations. Modern Geometry was made systematic by *Desargues* (1593-1662), *Descartes* devised analytical geometry. *Stevin* advocated a decimal system of coins, weights and measures.

(5) *Other Inventions and Discoveries*. Telescope, microscope, printing press, gun-powder and hand-guns and Mariner's Compass were the important inventions of the Renaissance. The scientific progress made in the Renaissance era laid the foundation of modern science.

SECTION 3 -EFFECTS OF THE RENAISSANCE

The following were the important effects of the Renaissance :—

(1) *End of Blind-Faith*. The people in the Middle Ages had blind-faith in the church, its dogmas and rituals. They followed blindly the preachings of the priests as they were very keen to improve their future life. Renaissance marked the end of the age of blind-faith and advent of the age of reason. Now people began to attach great importance to worldly life and all their efforts were now directed to make it happier and more prosperous.

(2) *Scientific Outlook*. People of the Middle Ages believed in superstitions, supernaturalism and mysteries. They accepted the theories without verifying or investigating them. But Renaissance encouraged original thinking and the spirit of enquiry and scientific investigation. It developed a critical outlook. It freed man from the mental slavery of the church.

(3) *Political Effects*. People were tired of the tyrannies of feudalism and the chaos and anarchy created by it. Renaissance did not usher in an era of democracy but it promoted nationalism and

led to the rise of strong and powerful monarchies which ensured peace, security, political stability and economic prosperity and happy life.

(4) *Church was Weakened.* In the Middle Ages the church had influence in all the spheres of life. Its authority was supreme and unchallengable. It had enslaved the mind of a man. But the Renaissance created the spirit of enquiry. People began to question the authority of the church and refused to follow blindly the dogmas which did not appeal to reason. This greatly weakened the authority of the church.

(5) *Development of Humanism.* The study of theological subjects occupied the time and energy of man in the Middle Ages. They were more interested in future life. But Renaissance widened the outlook and created an interest in man, his interests, his nature and his life in this world. It developed humanism and encouraged the study of humanities.

(6) *Spread of Education and Literature.* The invention of printing press helped in bringing out cheap books in large number. Schools, colleges, universities were opened at various places which helped a lot in spreading education and knowledge. It also led to the growth of vernacular languages and vernacular literature of high order. It thus enriched European civilization and culture.

(7) *Encouraged Arts and Sciences.* Renaissance encouraged the study of different sciences and led to various scientific inventions and discoveries. It also gave a great impetus to the growth of various kinds of art.

(8) *New Geographical Discoveries.* Renaissance created the spirit of adventure and instilled new spirit and enthusiasm in the minds of the people. The navigators now undertook adventurous voyages to new seas and discovered new lands. This led to the discoveries of many new lands.

(9) *Development of Trade and Industry.* The geographical discoveries and contact with the eastern countries promoted trade and industry with the European countries. Their national income increased and they began to lead a happy and prosperous life. It also resulted in the rise of a powerful middle class and gave a fatal blow to feudalism.

(10) *Reformation.* Church was supreme in religious matters and its authority could not be challenged. But with the growth of the spirit of enquiry and development of critical attitude, people began to question the authority and supremacy of the church. They now raised a strong voice against the evils that had penetrated in it. This led to the Reformation movement in Europe.

Giving an estimate of the influence of the Renaissance movement Prof. H.S. Lucas writes, "*The Renaissance was an era of striking*

accomplishment in painting, sculpture, architecture, music, literature, philosophy, science and technology. It also was an age of change in the economic foundations, in the basic structure of European society and in the organization of states. And last but not the least, the Renaissance affected the Christian Church, which for generations had presided at the formation of European Civilization."

SECTION 4—THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

The period from the latter half of 15th century to the beginning of 16th century is known as the Age of Discovery in the history of the World because many voyages were undertaken and many new sea routes, new lands and continents were discovered during this period. They ushered in a new era and every where revolutionized the life of the people.

1. Causes of the New Geographical Discoveries. The following causes led to the geographical discoveries during this period :—

(1) *Effects of the Renaissance.* People in the Middle Ages were superstitious, orthodox and narrow-minded. But the Renaissance created a spirit of enquiry, widened their outlook and broadened their mental horizon, consequently, they became enthusiastic, undertook difficult sea-voyages and discovered new lands.

(2) *Fall of Constantinople.* The trade between the West and the East was carried through the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. But when the Turks captured Constantinople the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire in 1453 A.D. these trade routes were closed to the traders of the West and gave a severe blow to their commerce. They were forced to find new trade routes and new lands. Thus the commercial considerations were largely responsible for the early explorations.

(3) *Need of Oriental Goods.* There was a great demand for the eastern goods in the European countries. They needed spices to preserve food. Luxury goods were also required for the rich families. They needed various oriental commodities such as spices, drugs, silk, gold, silver, precious stones, cotton goods, perfumes etc. The increased demand for these goods compelled the Europeans to find new trade-routes to the East.

(4) *Spirit of Adventure.* The men of the Renaissance were very enthusiastic and adventurous. To satisfy their love for adventure they were ever-ready to face difficulties and dangers. They sailed into unknown lands and established contacts with other parts of the world which were not known previously.

(5) *Hunger for Wealth.* The riches of the East also tempted the Europeans. They had a great hunger for wealth and wanted to have a flourishing trade and commerce with the eastern countries. This desire was so strong in them that they were prepared to face hazards in discovering new sea-routes and countries.

(6) *Mariner's Compass.* Before the end of the 13th Century Mariner's Compass was introduced into Europe. This was a very important invention. The Mariner's Compass helped the sailors to know the direction they were going. So they could undertake long voyages far from the sight of the land. Ships were improved so that they became more sea-worthy. Better and accurate maps were prepared for the guidance of the sailors. All these inventions stimulated the exploring spirit of the people.

(7) *Geographical Knowledge.* Geographical knowledge, skill and experience greatly helped the exploration work. Several books on travel were written in the 14th century. '*A Merchant's Handbook*' described all the known trade-routes between the West and the Far East. '*Secrets of the Faithful Crusader*' told about the cities of Asia. Many other books on travel such as the '*Far East*' the '*Holy Lands*' and '*Africa*' came into the hands of the Europeans and increased their geographical knowledge. At the same time it was proved that the earth is round and not flat. This improvement in geographical knowledge gave a great impetus to travel and explorations.

(8) *Propagation of Christianity.* The Christian missionaries had a strong desire to propagate Christianity in all parts of the world. Some rulers also wanted to discover new lands to spread their faith in every corner of the world, over and above amassing a great wealth. The desire to spread Christianity was an important factor in the discovery of new lands. Sometimes the missionaries accompanied the sailors to explore unknown countries.

2. Famous Geographical Discoveries. The Portuguese and the Spaniards were the pioneers in the field of geographical discoveries :—

Portuguese Explorations. (1) *Henry, the Navigator* (1394—1460) of Portugal took the lead in the exploration work. Portugal's position on the Atlantic made her fit for it. Prince Henry encouraged all sorts of explorations. He founded a school for sea-men and helped them in making long voyages. Under his able guidance, the explorers discovered many islands on the western coast of Africa such as Maderia Islands, the Azores and the West African Guinea Coast.

(2) *Bartholomew Diaz.* The Portuguese sailor, Diaz, reached the southern-most part of Africa in 1486 A.D. As he was caught in a fierce storm there he called it '*the Cape of Storm*'. But later on it was renamed as '*Cape of Good Hope*' because it held a hope for the Portuguese to reach the East.

(3) *Vasco-de-Gama.* Vasco-de-Gama, a famous Portuguese sailor, completed the work of Diaz. He sailed round the vast

African continent and after a hard and difficult voyage of 10 months and 12 days, he succeeded in reaching Calicut on the West Coast of India in 1498 A.D. He returned home with riches worth sixty times the cost of his expedition. As a result of these discoveries the Portuguese established their trading posts in India, Ceylon, Sumatra, Java and East India. Later on they reached China (1517 A.D.) and Japan (1542 A.D.) also.

Spanish Explorations—



Vasco-da-Gama

(1) *Columbus*. An Italian sailor named Columbus set sail on August 3, 1492 A.D. to find a new route to the East under the patronage of Queen of Spain with three small ships and 88 men on board. He believed that the eastern shores of Asia lay across the dark Atlantic. He landed on an island on October 12, 1492 A.D. and he named it as East Indies and called the natives Indians. It was later on found that it was not Asia but a new land now known as America. Columbus made three more trips to this New World and opened the way for the exploration and colonization of North and South America.

(2) *Amerigo Vespucci*. An Italian sailor named Amerigo imitated Columbus. He explored further the areas discovered by Columbus and confirmed that this new world was quite different, and separate, from Asia. A German geographer later on named this 'New World' as America in honour of Amerigo.

(3) *Vasco Nunez de Balboa*. Balboa crossed Panama in the hope of finding gold in the New World. At last he reached a great blue ocean which he called the South Sea.

(4) *Ferdinand Magellan*. A Portuguese sailor Magellan made the first voyage round the world under the patronage of Spanish King Charles I. He set sail in September, 1519 A.D. with five ships and 267 crew. He crossed the Atlantic, rounded the southern tip of South America and sailing through the straits known as 'Straits of Magellan' after his name he reached vast ocean which he called the Pacific Ocean. At last he landed at the Islands of Philippine but was killed by a native on April 27, 1521 A.D. Only one vessel out of five returned home via Cape of Good Hope. This voyage was a great landmark in the history of exploration and it paved the way for the new seas and continents.

(5) *Other Sailors*. Ponce de Leon explored Florida. Cortez discovered Mexico in 1519 A.D. Pizarro arrived in Peru. In this way Spain carved out a vast colonial empire in the New World.

English Explorations. An Italian navigator named *Cabot* reached the shores of the north-east of North America under the patronage of Henry VII. He named one of the islands as New Foundland. His son *Sebastian Cabot* and many English sailors such as Frobisher, Gilbert, Davis etc. extended the British claim over Canada and U.S.A.

French Explorations. An Italian sailor, *Verragano* explored the coastal land from North Caroline to New York under the patronage of King of France. In 1534 A.D. *Jacques Cartier* explored North America and reached the mouth of St. Lawrence River and laid the foundation of City of Montreal. *Samuel de Champlain*, *Salle*, *Joliel*, *Marquette* etc. established French colonies in Canada and Mississippi Valley.

3. Effects of the Geographical Discoveries. These geographical discoveries produced far-reaching effects :—

(1) *The Commercial Revolution.* As a result of the geographical discoveries, commercial relations were established between Europe, America and the East. Indian textiles, Persian carpets, spices, luxury goods and many other commodities of the East such as Cocoa, quinine, tea, coffee, cotton, silk, chocolate, indigo, whale oil, furs, dye woods etc. found their way in European markets. Timber, fir fish etc. were imported from America. Europe also exported many manufactured goods to Asia, Africa and America. This increase in trade brought a lot of money. The merchants spread it further to make more profit. This led to the establishments of Joint Stock Companies, Capitalism and banking and brought about a commercial revolution.

(2) *Encouraged Trade and Industry.* All through the Middle Ages there had been little gold and silver. Discoveries of new lands brought large quantities of gold and silver in Europe. Moreover, the discovery of new lands also led to a great improvement in trade and industry.

(3) *Better Living* The increase in trade and industry and supply of different commodities brought a lot of wealth and improved the standard of living of the people. The Europeans began to live a happy, comfortable and prosperous life.

(4) *Importance of the Atlantic.* Mediterranean and Baltic Seas were the main high ways of commerce and Genoa and Venice were the main centres of commerce in the Middle Ages. As a result of the discovery of America and Africa, the Atlantic became the main high-way of trade. Consequently towns on the Atlantic such as Lisbon, London, Amsterdam etc. increased in importance but the Mediterranean trade centres, such as Genoa and Venice, decreased in importance.

(5) *Rise of the Middle Class.* Progress in trade and commerce gave rise to the middle class which became wealthy and prosperous. As such their influence in society and politics increased tremendously and they got many privileges. They became the back-bone of the European society and began to dominate the social order.

(6) *Absolute Monarchy.* The economic prosperity and rise of the middle class helped a lot in crushing the power of the feudal lords. This led to the growth of absolute monarchies in England, France and Spain, etc.

(7) *Colonialism, Imperialism and Exploitation.* The geographical discoveries helped the European countries such as Portugal, Spain, France, Holland and England to set up colonies in Asia, Africa and America. They brought the natives of these lands under their sway and ruled over them and exploited them politically and economically.

(8) *Wars.* Another result of these discoveries was the rivalry among the European nations for colonial possessions and wealth. This was the major cause of the commercial and colonial wars between England and Spain, between Spain and France and between Holland and Portugal.

(9) *All round Progress.* The geographical discoveries widened the mental outlook of the Europeans. They also brought wealth and prosperity. This resulted in all-round progress of man and enriched the human culture and civilization.

(10) *Propagation of Christianity.* The missionaries followed the trade and flag. The geographical discoveries provided them new fields in Asia, Africa and America for the propagation of their faith.

(11) *Domination of the West.* The geographical discoveries led to the decline of the East and domination of the West in Asia, Africa and America. The Europeans began to consider themselves superior to the people of these continents, dominated over them, exploited them, destroyed their culture and imposed their own culture on them. Reaction against them started in the 20th century when many countries regained their freedom.

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1:—Renaissance : Meaning and Causes Responsible for it

1. *Meaning.* Rebirth or revival of the Greek and Roman classics ; Spirit of enquiry ; Humanism : A great movement.

2. *Causes.* (1) Original thinkers ; (2) Crusades ; (3) Decline of Feudalism ; (4) Free towns ; (5) Geographical Explorations ; (6) Printing Press ; (7) Development of science ; (8) Fall of Constantinople ; (9) Spread of Humanism ; (10) Co-operation of Kings, nobles and wealthy persons.

SECTION 2—Origin, Growth and Spread of Renaissance

(1) *Origin of Renaissance in Italy and its causes* (i) Rome as the centre of the Roman civilization; (ii) Wealth; (iii) Political Stability; (iv) Fall of Constantinople; (v) Love of Learning.

(2) *Growth and Spread of the Renaissance.* (i) *Renaissance in Literature*—Secular as well as religious Literature; Growth of vernacular Literature; Machiavelli, Dante, Petrarch, Chaucer, Shakespeare etc. were famous writers.

(ii) *Renaissance in Arts.* Realistic and natural Paintings; Life-like statues; Use of graceful domes, porches and pillars in buildings; Use of Violin and Piano and stress on harmony and sweetness in music.

(iii) *Renaissance in Science.* Progress in astronomy, Physics, Chemistry, Medicine and Maths; Copernicus, Kepler, Galileo, Newton etc. were famous scientists; Inventions of Telescope, Printing Press, Gun-powder etc.

SECTION 3—Effects of the Renaissance

(i) End of blind faith; Scientific outlook; Political effects; Church weakened; Humanism; Spread of Education and Literature; Encouraged Arts and Science; New Geographical discoveries; Progress of Trade and Industry; Reformation.

SECTION 4—Age of Discovery

(1) *Causes.* (i) Effect of the Renaissance; (ii) Fall of Constantinople; (iii) Need of Oriental goods; (iv) Spirit of Adventure; (v) Hunger for Wealth; (vi) Mariner's Compass; (vii) Geographical knowledge; (viii) Propagation of Christianity.

(2) *Famous Geographical Discoveries.* Discovery of Cape of Good Hope, Way to India, Brazil and America. A voyage round the world; Discovery of Mexico; Peru and New Foundland; French Explorations.

(3) *Effects of Geographical Discoveries.* (i) The Commercial Revolution; (ii) Encouraged Trade and Industry; (iii) Better Living (iv) Importance of the Atlantic; (v) Rise of the Middle Class; (vi) Absolute Monarchy; (vii) Colonialism; (viii) Wars; (ix) All-round Progress; (x) Propagation of Christianity; (xi) Domination of the West.

University and other Important Questions

1. What is Renaissance? Discuss the causes of Renaissance and mention its main effects. (U.U. 1963, 65)

2. Explain how the Renaissance helped to establish the modern state in Europe. (A.I. Hr. Sec. 1966)

3. What do you understand by Renaissance? What were the causes of its origin in Europe in the 16th Century? (A I. Hr. Sec. 1969)

4. What is Renaissance? How did it usher in the Modern Age? (B.U. 1957)

5. What did Europe achieve in Art, Literature, Science, and Education in the Age of the Renaissance. (B.U. 1962)

6. What was the Renaissance ? How did it express itself in Italy.

(B.U. 1965)

7. Describe the factors responsible for the Renaissance in Europe and mention its results.

(S.G.U. 1971)

8. What were the effects of Geographical discoveries of the 16th century over Europe ?

(C.B.S.E. 1970)

9. Show how the discoveries of the New World and new trade-routes to the East formed important landmarks in history.

(B.U. 1958)

10. Describe the principal geographical discoveries of the early modern age and indicate their effects

(B.U. 1961)

11. Describe briefly the importance of the discovery of the New World.

(B.U. 1960)

12. State in brief the race for colonies among the European nations from the 16th to 18th century. Estimate the effects of the same on Europe.

(B.U. 1965)

13. Examine the causes that led to great geographical discoveries in the 15th and 16th centuries and estimate their effects.

(B.U. 1967, 71)

14. Write short answers of the following :—

(1) Scientists of the Renaissance Period ; (2) Renaissance scholars and Painters ; (3) Renaissance Art ; (4) Fall of Constantinople ; (5) Humanism.

15. Why are the following persons so important in World History ?

(1) Dante (2) Petrarch (3) Roger Bacon (4) Copernicus (5) Leonardo de Vinci (6) Galileo (7) Michael Angelo (8) Raphael (9) Shakespeare (10) Machiavelli (11) Columbus (12) Vasco-de-Gama (13) Magellan.

16. Fill in the blanks :—

(1) Printing Press was invented in 1465 A.D. by.....

(2) Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks in..... A.D.

(3) Vasco-de-Gama discovered India in..... A.D.

(4) Columbus discoveredin A.D.

(5) invented telescope.

(6) Divine comedy was written by.....

(7) is the famous fresco of Leonardo.

(1) *The Renaissance.* The Renaissance engendered the spirit of enquiry, developed critical attitude of mind and broadened the mental out-look of man. It encouraged original and independent thinking on scientific lines. The people now began to question the authority of the Pope and criticise the corrupt practices and rituals and the immoral life of the clergymen. Many devoted Christians began to study the Bible themselves as it was now translated in their own language. They now questioned the authority of the Pope as a means of salvation. They were simply shocked at the ignorance and superstitions of the clergymen. The learned people raised a strong voice against the abuses that had penetrated into the church.

(2) *Corruption and Demoralisation in the Church.* In the beginning the Popes and priests led a pious, simple and moral life and commanded great respect and honour in the society. But with the passage of time moral decay and corrupt practices crept into the church. Even the Popes became notorious for their scandalous lives. According to Postar, corruption started in the times of Pope Paul II, increased during the term of Sixtus IV and it reached its height during the period of Alexander VI. Many of the clergymen were ignorant and lacked education worthy of their positions. The Priests, Bishops, Abbots and the Popes were often worldly; they lived in luxury and ease and neglected their religious duties. They did not observe celibacy, and the service of mankind was not their motto now. They were not the worshipper of God but of money. These corrupt and immoral practices were severely criticised and opposed by the people. Erasmus exposed them in his book named '*In Praise of Folly*' and prepared the ground for this movement. A Spanish officer of the church once complained "*Wolves are in control of the church and feed on the blood of the Christian flock.*"

(3) *Jealousy of Rome's Grandeur.* Funds of the church were lavishly spent in erecting artistic cathedrals and buildings in Rome and to enhance its beauty and grandeur. Besides realizing taxes the Popes began to adopt other means to collect funds. The burden fell on the peasants, labourers and the middle class. They all began to oppose the church because of its heavy financial burden. The people of almost all the European countries could not tolerate that Rome should flourish at their cost.

(4) *Interest of the Church in Political Matters.* The Pope considered himself to be the representative of God on earth. He considered the kings as his subjects and claimed the authority to throne and to dethrone them. So the Popes began to interfere in the internal affairs of the different states. They assumed the role which was not religious, in nature. Their interference in the political affairs was naturally strongly opposed by the kings and they became anti-Pope. They strongly supported the Reformation Movement in order to weaken the church and to strengthen their own positions.

(5) *Opposition of the Common Masses.* Not only the rulers but also the people of different European countries adopted an anti-Papal

attitude. They were fed up with the dogmatic attitude and sacraments of the church. They hated its corrupt practices and immoral activities. They also attacked its way of collecting money and interference in secular matters. They turned against Papacy and became supporters of a strong monarchy. They strongly supported this movement and shook the very foundation of the Papacy.

(6) *Development of Nationalistic Feelings.* The development of national feelings and rise of national states was one of the major factors which contributed to the Reformation movement in the 16th century. Rulers of many European countries such as England, Germany etc. and many of their subjects now began to regard the Pope as a foreigner. They objected to an international church. They wanted a church free from the control of a foreign Pope. The Pope tried to exert his authority but the kings, in combination with their people, over-threw his power and made their national churches independent of his authority.

(7) *Evil Practices in the Church.* As the Popes and the clergymen became ambitious and began to lead a luxurious life, many abuses and evil practices grew in the church. Clerical offices were no longer given to the deserving men but were sold for money. This evil was known as '*Simony*'. According to the corrupt practice of '*Plurality*' a clergyman could hold more than one churches. They behaved like feudal lords and exploited the masses. A clergyman of every state was required to pay his first year's income to the Pope as '*Annates*' or '*First Fruit*'. The Pope sold various kinds of pardon-certificates such as the '*Indulgences*', '*Absolutions*' and '*Dispensations*' to save the people from sins, crimes and fire of hell. Again the clergymen did not keep the vows of celibacy, poverty and service of mankind. So to say, religion had become a commercial business. These corrupt practices and vices in the church antagonised the masses and they revolted against it.

(8) *Fore-runners of Reformation.* Many reformers of the 14th and 15th centuries attacked the priesthood and challenged the teachings and practices of the church. One such staunch critics of the church was *John Wycliffe* (1320-84 A.D.). He was an English priest and professor at the Oxford University. He was known as the "*Morning Star of the Reformation.*" He criticised the church and the Pope. He brought home to the people that sacraments and pilgrimage to holy places cannot lead to salvation. He did not consider Pope as the representative of God on earth but as anti-Christ. He directed the people to seek guidance from the Bible and not from the corrupt and immoral Popes and clergymen. For the benefit of the people he translated the Bible into English. He advised the people to follow the simple truths of the Holy Scriptures. He preferred the state to the church. His followers were known as '*Lollards*' or '*Poor Priests*'. Wycliffe was excommunicated for his criticism of the church. *John Huss* (1369-1415 A.D.), a professor at the University of Prague in Bohemia, was a follower of John Wycliffe and he translated and distributed his master's teachings among the people. He also advised the masses to return to the teachings of the Bible

ard condemned the corrupt life of the Pope and the clergymen. He, too, was excommunicated, but he burnt the Papal order of excommunication. At this Huss was condemned as a heretic and burnt alive by the Holy Roman Emperor at the instigation of the Pope. *Severanorola* (1452-98 A.D.) of Florence also attacked the abuses of the church and advocated freedom of thought. He was also burnt at the stake. These atrocities shocked the whole of Europe. The Lollards and Hussites were persecuted but they sowed the seeds of the Reformation by their sacrifices.

(9) *Internal Conflicts.* The church began to interfere in the political affairs of the national states. The property of the church was not taxable. In the 13th century conflicts between the King of England and the King of France on the one hand and the Pope Boniface VIII on the other developed over the right to tax the church's property. The rulers gained the upper hand and established their right to tax the property of the church. It was a great disgrace for Boniface who died in 1303 A.D. It also lowered the prestige of the church. In 1309 A.D. King Philip IV of France forced Pope Clement V to shift the seat of the church from Rome to Avignon. The Pope remained there for 70 years. This incident is known as the *Babylonian Captivity* in the history of the world. The French domination over the Pope further lowered Pope's prestige in Europe. Internal conflicts appeared in the church when there were two Popes and the came to the fore-front in 1378 A.D., one elected by the Italian Cardinals and the other by the Greek Cardinals. In 1409 A.D. another group of Cardinals elected a third Pope. Thus the position became very confused. In fact this internal conflict in the church gave a severe blow to its power, prestige and influence.

(10) *Immediate Cause.* Long before the open breach with Rome there had been only some cases of protest against the religious dictatorship of the Pope. These minor revolts were also crushed with a heavy hand. So the early reformers met with failure and death and it now required a supreme courage to challenge the church once again. This challenge was accepted by a German reformer Martin Luther, who revolted against the sale of the Indulgences and raised a strong voice and launched a severe movement against the abuses of the church and the authority of the Pope. This proved to be the immediate cause of the Reformation.

SECTION 2--COURSE OF REFORMATION

The Reformation movement no doubt began in Germany, but slowly and slowly it engulfed all the European countries in its circle.

1. Martin Luther and Reformation in Germany. The credit for starting Reformation in Germany goes to Martin Luther. Martin Luther was born at Eisleben in Germany in 1483 A.D. He was

the son of a miner. He received higher education in the University of Erfurt and then he became a priest in a church. In the beginning he was over-enthusiastic about the church. He once said. "*Now I felt born again, and it seemed to me as though heaven's gates stood full open before me, and I was joyfully entering therein.*" He had a very hard life and practised penance to repent for his sins and obtain salvation. Once he read a sentence—"The Just shall live by Faith", in a holy book. It brought about a revolution in his ideas. He came to believe that God is a loving Father who will save all men who have faith in Him and that all persons who believed could themselves read the scriptures. There is no need of mediatory priesthood for salvation. These ideas caused a break in the Medieval Church. In 1512 A.D. he went to Rome for pilgrimage. He was stunned to see that the Pope had sunk to the level of an Italian Prince and led a very luxurious life. The corrupt practices of the church and immoral life of the clergymen brought a great change in his ideas and he became a staunch opponent of the Pope.



Martin Luther.

(1) *Struggle with the Pope.* Luther became the Professor of Theology at the University of Wittenburg. In 1517 A.D. Pope Julius II sent his agent named Tetzel to sell 'Indulgences' in Wittenburg to collect funds in order to rebuild St. Peter's Church at Rome. The people were made to believe that if they bought the 'Indulgence' by paying heavy amounts to the church they would be absolved of their sins and saved from the fire of hell. Luther on the other hand thought that 'Indulgences' were wrong and if men are sorry for their sins and have faith in God, He will forgive them. Luther wrote down his objections against the sale of 'Indulgences' in Latin, in the form of 95 statements known as '*Ninety-Five Theses*' and nailed them on the door of the church at Wittenburg and challenged the scholars to have a debate on them. In these Theses Luther laid great stress on faith and strongly opposed the sale and purchase of Indulgences as a means of salvation. He believed in the infallibility of the Bible and not of the Pope. He upheld the secular authority of the kings in temporal matters and challenged the authority of the Pope alone, to explain the scriptures.

Luther's Theses were printed and distributed widely in Germany. They created a great excitement every where. Consequently, a National Church was established in Germany and prayers began to be held in the German language. In 1519 A.D. he also defeated a priest sent by the Pope in a debate. The New teachings of Luther endangered the authority of the Pope. Leo X, so he excommunicated him. But Luther burnt the Bill (or Eddict of the Pope) and

remarked. "Because thou dost trouble the Holy one of the Lord, may eternal fire consume thee."

(2) *Diet of Worms, 1521 A.D.* Pope requested the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V to take action against Luther. He ordered Luther to defend his case and doctrines before a Grand Diet, i.e., a Council of princes and high dignatories at Worms in 1521 A.D. Luther upheld his doctrines and refused to recant. He said, "It is neither safe nor right to act against one's conscience." The Diet outlawed Luther and ordered his writings to be burnt. But his friend Frederick the Elector of Saxony hid him in his own castle where he translated Bible into the German language.

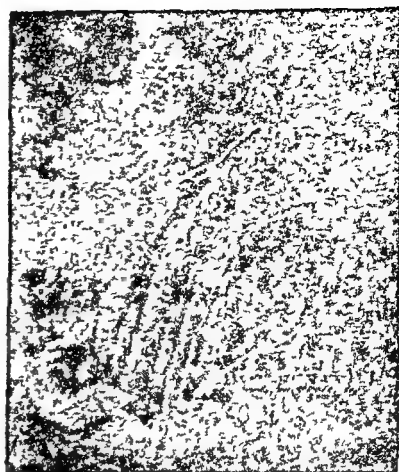
(3) *Peasant's Revolt, 1525 A.D.* Luther preached the equality of men before God. The peasants thought that he meant social, as well as economic and religious equality. They revolted against their masters in 1525 A.D. and demanded payment in wages and the abolition of serfdom. Luther condemned their revolt and urged them to return to their work but to no effect. At this he told the nobles to crush the revolt with a heavy hand. As a result about 50,000 peasants were put to death.

(4) *Schmal Kaldic League and the Protestant Church.* In 1530 A.D. the Holy Roman Emperor threatened the followers of Luther to come back to the fold of the Roman Catholic Church or they would be forced to do so. Luther and some of the German Princes accepted the challenge and formed a league known as the 'Schmal Kaldic League' to face the Emperor. The civil war and struggle between the two continued until they concluded the *Peace of Augsburg in 1555 A.D.*, nine years after the death of Luther. By this Lutherism was recognized as another legal form of Christianity and the ruler of each state in Germany was given the right to determine whether his state was to be Roman Catholic or Lutheran. The Southern German States remained loyal to the Roman Catholic Church, while the Northern German States accepted Lutherism or Protestantism. Protestantism did away with monasteries and many dogmas of the old church. It upheld the principle of faith. Instead of the Papal authority, it accepted only the Bible as the real word of God. Church services began to be conducted in the German language. The Priests were also allowed to marry. Gradually Lutherism or Protestantism began to spread into other European countries.

2. Reformation in Switzerland. (1) *Ulrich Zwingli (1484-1531 A.D.).* A religious reformer named Ulrich Zwingli was very much impressed by the teachings and writings of Luther and he started the reform movement in Switzerland. He attacked papacy and insisted that the Bible rather than the church was the guide to right living. He was, however, killed in 1531 A.D. in a religious war against the Pope.

(2) *John Calvin (1509-64 A.D.).* Zwingli's work was continued John Calvin. He was a French lawyer and a strong supporter of

Lutherism. As a result of his preachings he invited the wrath of king of France and consequently he had to run away to Switzerland. He wrote his famous book '*The Institute of the Christian Religion*.' He did not believe in the Doctrine of Sacraments of the Catholic Church. At the same time he did not accept Luther's Doctrine of Salvation through sheer faith. To the followers of Calvin (or for Calvinists) the Bible was the sole authority for achieving salvation. The way of worship was very simple. He laid a great stress on reading of the Bible, sermons, singing of hymns and prayers. Sunday was reserved for religious activities only. Most of this day was to be spent in the church. All luxury was banned and churches were made severely plain. Dancing, feasting on lavish scale and luxury in dress were disliked. Calvinism also spread to other countries. His followers came to be known as Huguenotes in France, Presbyterian in Scotland and Puritans in England.



John Calvin

3. Reformation in Scotland, France, Norway, Sweden and Holland. The credit for carrying out the Reformation in Scotland goes to *John Knox* (1505-72 A.D.), a staunch follower of Calvin. He was deadly opposed to the papal authority and idol-worship. Due to the opposition of the Pope he had to leave his country and take shelter in England. He again returned to Scotland because he could not tolerate the religious persecution of Mary Tudor in England. He continued the work of religious reforms in Scotland with great zest and zeal. The followers of Calvin were called *Presbyterians* in Scotland.

The pioneer of Reformation in *Holland* was the reformer named *Erasmus* (1466-1533). He was the foremost advocate of the new learning and was deadly opposed to corrupt and immoral life of the Pope and the clergymen. He severely condemned evil practices and abuses of the church. He was in favour of bringing reforms in the church by peaceful means, but he disliked violent methods. '*Pocket Dagger*', '*Praise of Folly*' and '*New Testament*' are his famous works. In the '*Praise of Folly*' he had denounced the abuses of the church in a very sarcastic manner. He wanted to effect the reforms in the church by a direct appeal to the reason of man. It has been rightly remarked "*The jokes of Erasmus did the Pope more harm than the anger of Luther.*" His influence extended to England, France, Germany and Italy also.

The current of this movement was, however, not strong in *France* because Richelieu, the Prime Minister of Louis XII, crushed all movements of religious reforms with a heavy hand, because he

wanted to save France from religious conflicts.¹ He was, however, not totally successful in wiping out the followers of Calvin called Huguenots.

The rulers of *Norway, Sweden and Denmark* were greatly influenced by the teachings and doctrines of Luther. They closed down the Roman Catholic Churches and established Lutheran National Churches in their countries. They acquired the property of the church to stabilize their economic position. The Bible was also translated into various vernaculars in these countries.

4. Reformation in England. John Wycliffe and the pioneers of Renaissance in England named Erasmus, Thomas Moore and John Colet did raise a voice against the practices of the church but the movement started by them did not gain momentum because the early Tudor ruler Henry VII was inclined to the Catholic Church. Reformation started in England during the reign of *Henry VIII (1509-1547 A.D.)*. In the beginning he was, however, in favour of the Pope and the Catholic Church. When Luther challenged the authority of the Pope, Henry VIII supported the Pope and wrote a book in his favour and the Pope awarded him the title of the '*Defender of the Faith*'. But later on the relations between the two became strained. Henry himself had married his brother's widow Catherine of Aragon, against the law of the church. He wanted to divorce her and marry Anne Boleyn so that he might have a male heir. But the Pope kept putting him off and did not grant him permission for divorce. At this Henry VIII was infuriated and he tried to put an end to Pope's influence in England. The Parliament passed the '*Act of Annates*' and forbade the priests to send the income of their first year to the Pope. The '*Act of Appeal*' forbade the sending of appeals to the Pope from the Court of England. By the '*Act of Supremacy*' Henry VIII became the supreme head of the church. Though he made no fundamental changes in the religion yet his reforms paved the way for Reformation in England.

Henry VIII's son and successor *Edward VI* was a champion of Protestantism. Services began to be held in English. The Prayer book was also translated to English and many changes were introduced in it later on. The Catholic Statute of Six Articles was replaced by Statute of 42 Articles. He appointed Protestant priests in place of the Catholics and they were allowed to marry. Edward was succeeded by his sister *Mary* who took various steps to popularise Catholicism once again in England. She once again accepted the supremacy of the Pope. The Old Book of Common Prayer and Statute of Six Articles were introduced again. The Protestant priests were dismissed and Catholic priests were appointed in their place. All those who did not accept the doctrines of the Catholic Church and supremacy of the Pope were persecuted and this very fact earned her the title of the '*Bloody Mary*' in history.

After the death of Mary her sister *Queen Elizabeth* adopted the middle path between the Roman Catholicism and Lutherism and laid the foundation of the Anglican Church. In this way she was able to settle the knotty religious problem in England.

SECTION 3—COUNTER-REFORMATION MOVEMENT

The rapid progress of Protestantism in different European countries alarmed the Pope, the Catholic kings and the staunch Catholics. They started a movement which aimed at reforming the Roman Catholic Church, checking the progress and popularity of Protestantism and winning back the 'lost-sheep' to the old-fold and thus saving the Catholic Church from extinction. This movement is called as the 'Counter-Reformation Movement.'

1. Council of Trent and Efforts for Internal Reforms.

To bring about reforms in the Catholic Church, a Church Council was summoned at Trent in Northern Italy by Pope Paul III in 1545 A.D. It held various sessions at intervals, for 18 years. Many decisions were taken to remove corruption and abuses from the church and to reform it. It was decided that: (1) The Pope is the head of the church and final interpreter of all doctrines, (2) Only the church has the right to interpret scriptures; (3) The official Bible of all Catholics is to be the new Latin version known as the Vulgate Version. (4) The sale of church office was forbidden. (5) Schools were to be set-up for the training of the clergymen. (6) The clergymen were to live in these Churches and perform their duties honestly. (7) Sermons were to be preached in the language of the people. (8) A list of heretic books was prepared and Catholics were required not to read them. (9) The Church Court known as '*the Inquisition*' was revived to punish the corrupt clergymen and to deal severely with those who opposed the beliefs of the Catholic Church.

2. Ignatius Loyala and the Society of Jesus. Another important reform was the establishment of a new religious order known as the '*Jesuit Order*'. It was founded by Ignatius Loyala a Spanish soldier in 1540 A.D. He was a soldier of the Spanish army. Once he was badly wounded in a battle. While he was in hospital he read the life history of Jesus Christ and many other saints. He became the soldier of God and took a vow to serve the Catholic Church and the people. He founded the Society of Jesus in 1540 A.D.

Its members were called Jesuits and they took vows of poverty, chastity, obedience and missionary work at home and abroad. The scholars and teachers opened schools and colleges all over Europe and exercised tremendous influence on the minds of the young-men. They rendered useful service to the cause of education.

This missionary work resulted in the spread of Christianity not only in Europe but also in India, China, Japan, Africa and America. The Counter-Reformation movement succeeded to realize its aim to a great extent. It halted the rapid spread of Protestantism. Southern Germany, Poland, France, Savoy etc. were brought back to the Catholic faith. Protestantism was wiped out of Italy and Spain. The Roman Catholic Church was reformed and is still regarded as one of the greatest religious sects of the world.

SECTION 4—EFFECTS OF THE REFORMATION

The following were the important effects or results of the Reformation :—

(1) *Counter-Reformation.* As explained above Counter-Reformation Movement was the direct result of the Reformation. Keeping in view the rapid progress of Protestantism, the Catholics started the Counter-Reformation Movement to arrest the popularity of Protestantism, to reform the Catholic Church by weeding out corruption and abuses, to bring back the 'lost sheep', to its fold and to save it from extinction.

(2) *Unity of Christendom Broken.* Reformation broke the unity of Christendom and the universality of the Church. The uniformity in doctrines, dogmas and rituals also came to an end. There was a split in the church and it broke up into Protestantism and Catholicism. These two main groups further broke up into many sects. National churches were established in many countries and they developed their own doctrines, principles and sacraments. The heads of these churches were the rulers of these countries and not the Pope. The supremacy of the Pope was replaced by the supremacy of the Bible.

(3) *Religious Persecution.* Rivalries between the two groups of Christians gave birth to fanaticism and hatredness. They committed cruel acts in the name of God and discipline. The Catholic Inquisition was responsible for the persecution of Protestants and they were burnt alive at the Stake. Mary Tudor of England is known as 'Bloody-Mary' in history because of his bloody deeds of persecuting the Protestants. The Protestants also did not follow a policy of religious toleration towards the Catholics. They had to suffer many hardships under Edward VI of England.

(4) *Civil Wars.* With the passage of time both Reformation and Counter-Reformation movements became aggressive. A wave of fanaticism seized both the Protestants and the Catholics. The result was the long and bloody civil wars and revolts in many countries especially in France, Germany and Switzerland, among the supporters of the two sects. They caused great loss of life and property, hampered all-round progress and halted the march of civilization and culture.

(5) *Individualism and Intellectualism.* Reformation promoted individualism and freedom of thought. The intellectuals now began to question the authority not only of the Pope but also of the Bible and of Christ and even that of God. This resulted in the growth of many 'isms' such as Communism, Socialism, Syndicalism, Fascism, Nazism, Anarchism etc. Now no limits were placed on man's thinking. He now became free to experiment in all the spheres of life. Such a thing accelerated progress in science and philosophy.

(6) *It weakened Papacy and strengthened Monarchy.* Reformation proved fatal to the influence, authority, power and prestige of Papacy because it exposed the weakness and abuses of the church. On the other hand it promoted the spirit of nationalism and

strengthened absolute monarchies. The Act of Supremacy in England and the Peace of Augsburg in Germany led to the establishment of national churches and later on of the national states.

(7) *Religious Wars among European Countries.* Reformation led to many religious wars among the European countries. King Philip II of Spain was a staunch supporter of the Catholic Church. He was determined to conquer England and make an end of Elizabeth and Protestantism. He sent a strong fleet of warships known as '*the Invincible Armada*' against England in 1588 A.D. But it was defeated very badly and shattered Philip's dream of promoting Catholicism in England. Then he tried to check the spread of Protestantism in his dominions particularly in Netherlands. He was determined to destroy heresy at all costs. The people of Netherlands, however, revolted against his repressive government under the leadership of William of Orange. Philip declared war against Netherlands. By the Treaty of West-Phalia in 1648 A.D., he acknowledged the independence of Holland. The Peace of Augsburg of 1555 A.D. did not settle the religious problem satisfactorily in Europe. When the Protestants of Bohemia rebelled against the Holy Roman Emperor, the rulers of Sweden and Denmark helped the Protestants. Later on the Catholic France also joined the fray. This war is known as '*Thirty Years War*' and came to an end by the Treaty of West Phalia in 1648 A.D. Calvinism was also recognized as another branch of Christianity and rulers of the German states were given the freedom to choose Catholicism or Lutheranism or Calvinism as their state religion.

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Meaning and Causes Responsible for Reformation

Meaning. A revolt against the papal authority, dogmas and sacraments and abuses of the church and the corrupt and immoral life of the clergymen.

Causes. (1) The Renaissance ; (2) Corruption and demoralization in church ; (3) Jealousy of Rome's grandeur ; (4) Interest of the Church in political matters ; (5) Opposition of the people ; (6) Development of Nationalistic feelings ; (7) Evil practices of the church ; (8) Fore-runners of Reformation , (9) Internal Conflicts ; (10) Immediate cause.

SECTION 2 :—Course of Reformation

(1) *Martin Luther and Reformation in Germany.* His career ; struggle with the Pope ; Diet of Worms in 1521 A.D. ; Peasants Revolt 1525 A.D. ; Schmal Kaldic League and the Protestant Church.

(2) *Reformation in Switzerland.* Ulrich Zwingli, John Calvin and foundation of Calvinism. Its propagation in other countries.

(3) *Reformation in Scotland, France, Holland, Norway and Sweden.* John Knox and Presbyterianism in Scotland ; Erasmus and Reformation in Holland ; Movement not very strong in France. ;

Rulers of Norway, Sweden and Denmark encouraged the Reformation Movement in their countries.

(4) *Reformation in England.* Henry VIII and the problem of divorce of Catherine of Aragon, His break with the Pope paved the way for Reformation in England; Edward VI and measures adopted by him to promote Protestantism; Mary Tudor and progress of catholicism; Elizabeth's church policy and establishment of the Anglican Church.

SECTION 3 :—Counter-Reformation Movement

(1) It aimed at reforming the Catholic Church and to halt the rapid spread of Protestantism; (2) Council of Trent and efforts for internal reforms in 1545 A.D.; (3) Ignatius Loyola and the Society of Jesus, 1540 A.D.

SECTION 4 :—Results or Effects of the Reformation

(1) Counter Reformation; (2) Unity of Christendom broken; (3) Religious Persecution; (4) Civil wars; (5) Individualism and Intellectualism; (6) It weakened Papacy and strengthened Monarchy; (7) Religious Wars among European countries.

University and other Important Questions

1. What do you mean by the Reformation? What were its causes? (A.I. Hr. Sec., 1967)
2. What do you understand by the Reformation? How was it brought about? What were its effects? (A.I. Hr. Sec., 1969)
3. Discuss the Reformation with particular reference to the work of John Wycliffe, Martin Luther and John Calvin. (B.U., 1956, 59, 70)
4. Discuss critically the importance of the Reformation. (B.U., 1960)
5. What were Reformation and Counter-Reformation? Why were these movements important and what were their effects. (B.U., 1963, U.U. 63, 64)
6. What were the causes of the Reformation? Give a brief account of its spread in Europe (B.U., 1964)
7. Critically examine the causes of the Protestant Reformation. (B.U., 1965)
8. Review the causes, events and the results of the Reformation. (B.U., 1968)
9. Why did the Reformation originate in Germany. (B.U., 1971)
10. Write notes on the following :—
 - (1) John Wycliffe (2) Erasmus (3) Calvin (4) Martin Luther
 - (5) John Knox (6) Council of Trent (7) Counter-Reformation (8) Society of Jesus
 - (9) Ignatius Loyola (10) Indulgences.
11. Give the name of the following :—
 - (1) Leader of the Reformation in Germany.
 - (2) Leader of the Reformation in Switzerland.
 - (3) King who divorced his wife and married his beloved
 - (4) Queen who burnt 300 priests alive
 - (5) Reformer of Genoa
12. Answer in 'Yes' or 'No'
 - (1) Reformation started in Italy
 - (2) Society of Jesus did much to popularize Catholicism
 - (3) The Protestants of France were called Presbyterians.
 - (4) Ignatius Loyola was a Protestant.
 - (5) The 'Praise of Folly' did the Pope more harm than the anger of Luther.

Age of Enlightened Despotism in Europe

SECTION 1—MEANING, CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS AND CAUSES OF THE GROWTH OF ENLIGHTENED DESPOTISM

1. **Its Meaning.** All the governments of Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries in Europe were monarchies. Strong kings rose during this period and many of them ruled as absolute monarchs. They had no limitations on their powers. They combined in themselves all the executive, legislative and judicial powers. They believed in the theory of Divine Rights of Kings. According to Dr. J.E. Swain, "*The Prince was placed above the common man as one endowed by God to rule. Rebellion against the government was a sin against God and man. The Prince was the state. He was the source of political power, the fountain of Justice, the owner of the state and the overseer of all intellectual activities*".

2. **Chief Characteristics of the Enlightened Despots.** They were absolute and grand as well. They lived in great splendour, magnificence, pomp and glory. They held brilliant and grand royal courts. Louis XIV of France was symbol of grand monarchy in Europe. But these rulers were *enlightened and benevolent*. Though they enjoyed absolute powers yet they looked after the welfare and interests of their subjects. They gave *equal-handed justice* to the people. *They built* roads, canals, bridges etc. and encouraged agriculture, trade and industry for happiness and prosperity of their subjects. They maintained peace and order and saved the people from foreign aggressions. They were brave, courageous and good administrators. They maintained friendly relations with other powerful despots to strengthen their positions. They promoted education, literature and art. There were no elected assemblies of the people so the monarch introduced various reforms for the welfare of their subjects. Louis XIV of France, Frederick the Great of Prussia, Peter the Great of Russia, Joseph II of Austria and Charles III of Spain are the examples of some enlightened despots of Europe.

3. **Causes of the Growth of Absolute Monarchy.** The following causes were responsible for the growth of absolute monarchy in Europe :—

(1) *Need for Peace and Order.* The feudal lords created chaos, confusion, anarchy and disorder all over the continent by their bloody and continuous warfare. The people were tired of this sorry state of affairs and favoured the establishment of a strong centralized government capable of maintaining peace and order and ensuring security of life and property. The people of England welcomed and tolerated the despotic rule of their rulers because they brought peace and order for the people who were fed up with the feudal wars. Popular support was given to the kings because they promised a more efficient system of government.

(2) *Decline of Feudalism.* In the Middle Ages feudal lords were very strong and powerful. They behaved like king-makers and exercised a great check on the powers of the rulers. Many of them were, however, killed in internal wars and Crusades. Those who survived were powerless to overthrow the kings. The decline of feudalism and destruction of the feudal lords greatly helped the rulers to establish their despotic rule.

(3) *Rise of the Middle Class.* Geographical discoveries and commercial colonies promoted trade and commerce. This led to the rise of the Middle Class. The middle class people especially merchants, traders and industrialists rendered whole-hearted support to the absolute monarchs to set up stable governments which could establish peace and order and enable them to carry on their trade peacefully. They helped the rulers with men and money to crush the nobles.

(4) *Change in the Methods of Warfare.* In feudal times, there was no strong central government. The troops were maintained by the lords and the kings had no standing armies. But the invention of gun powder and fire-arms brought about a great change in the methods of warfare. The rulers claimed the monopoly of gun-powder. They raised standing armies and equipped them with fire-arms. With their help the kings destroyed their castles and gave a death blow to their military strength. So the power of the nobles began to decline and that of the kings continued to increase. This thing in turn contributed to the rise of absolutism.

(5) *Nationalism and Patriotism.* The decline of feudalism, the growth of cities and development of trade and commerce, engendered a spirit of nationalism. The wars of the later medieval period also roused the feelings of nationalism and patriotism. In the face of a danger from a common enemy the people of a particular country forgot their differences and began to think of themselves as a nation. These wars against a common foe increased the power and prestige of the rulers who led the people in these wars and thus enabled themselves to establish their absolute rule.

(6) *Renaissance and Reformation.* The Renaissance scholars and the leaders of the Reformation favoured absolute governments. The study of classics brought home to the people the fact that they prosper under a strong centralized government. The Reformation

mation also rejected the idea of universal empire and universal church and thus strengthened absolutism of national kings. Martin Luther laid great stress on the Doctrine of Divine Right and advised the people to give passive obedience to their rulers. Reformation gave a blow to the power and prestige of the Catholic Church. Consequently national churches were set-up in Protestant countries and they were brought under the complete control of the state. As such the kings became more powerful and absolute.

(7) *Famous Writers.* Writings of certain famous writers contributed to the growth of absolute monarchy. *Wycliffe* in England upheld the Divine Right of Kings. *Luther* also wrote in favour of absolutism. "*It is in no way wise for anyone, who would be Christian, to set himself up against his government, whether it acts justly or unjustly.*" *Machiavelli*, a Florentine citizen and an authority on national and international politics, favoured absolute monarchy in his famous book '*The Prince*'. It became a Bible for the absolute monarchs. He writes that a state must be strong and efficient to ensure the security of persons and their property. This can be attained through the rule of one man whose power is unquestioned. According to *Machiavelli* the king is above law and principles. According to *Hobbes* (1588-1679) peace and stability can be attained only through the creation of a strong central government.

(8) *Powerful Monarchs.* The powerful rulers of the period such as Louis XIV of France, Frederick II of Prussia, Peter the Great and Catherine II of Russia, Joseph II of Austria and Charles III of Spain also contributed to the growth of absolute monarchy. They were benevolent despots and well-versed in the philosophy of enlightenment. They introduced various reforms and improved the economic condition of the people. They promoted agriculture, trade and industry. They patronized education, art and literature. They never misused their powers for their own selfish ends. They always looked after the welfare and interests of their people. So they became popular, strong and powerful. The emergence of these absolute and popular monarchs favoured the rise of absolutism.

SECTION 2:—ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS OF EUROPE—

1. LOUIS XIV OF FRANCE

The decline of the Holy Roman Empire and of the Papacy and the growth of national states led to the formation of strong monarchies in many countries of Europe. Kings aimed at making themselves absolute and they were frequently successful. At the end of the 16th century France like many other countries of the Europe was rapidly approaching a position in which the king could do practically as he liked.

Louis XIV of France. Absolutism reached its zenith during the reign of Louis XIV (1643—1715) when he reached a

position of unbridled power and grandeur and also furnished an example which inspired the kings of other European countries. Various factors were responsible for it. Unlike England, the French nobles



LOUIS XIV

and the middle class people were not in a position to challenge the absolute authority of the kings. The French Parliament or the Estates General was not strong enough as the English Parliament to curb despotism. Many able ministers of France like Richelieu, Mazarin and Colbert also rendered useful service to the French monarch to establish his despotic rule.

(1) *Early Life of Louis XIV.* Louis was born on September 5, 1638 A.D. He came to the throne after the death of his father at the age of five and ruled for 72 years. During his minority the administration was carried on by his minister Mazarin and his mother. Those, who thought that the power of the king should be curbed, formed a league against him known as the '*Fronde*' and raised a revolt against him in 1648 A.D. The '*Frondes*' were totally beaten by 1652 A.D. and after that the king and his courtiers dominated the French

life. From this event Louis learnt that France needed an absolute monarch. In the mean-time he thought that he was the king by the grace of God and that no one had the right to question his power. At the age of twenty-one he took the reins of the government in his own hands and decided to be his own Chief Minister and to have no Estates General to give him any advice.

(2) *Character of Louis XIV.* Louis was handsome, dignified and courteous. He had a good memory, a fine judgement, strong will and a high sense of duty. He possessed a charming personality and refined manners. He was very intelligent and hard-working. He was ambitious and believed in the Divine Right of Kings. He wanted to rule absolutely. He once said, "*I am the State.*" According to **John Conard**, "*Louis was well suited for his role as absolute monarch for he was a man of great energy and worked hard. Moreover, he was dignified and kingly in manner and appearance and carried out his part well.*" His aim was to make France the most powerful and most admired country of the world. Wars were fought in order to gratify personal ambitions and to increase the grandeur of royalty. The king firmly believed that he held his authority direct from the God and that he was answerable to nobody else for any of his actions.

(3) *Craze for Grandeur* Louis was very fond of pomp and show and lived in grandeur and magnificence. He made many splendid buildings in France, the most remarkable of all was the great palace at Versailles which costed him crores of rupees. He invited painters, sculptors, musicians and actors to adorn his Court and to glorify his position. According to **H.A. Davies**, "*Splendour was almost a craze with him; his court became proverbial for its lavish display of wealth; and his palace at Versailles, with its saloons, its mirrors, its parks and its fountains, became the envy and admiration of the World.*" The nobles or courtiers crowded to Versailles to live near the king and to share his extravagance. Foreign rulers vied with each other to imitate all this luxury, but no court in Europe ever equalled Louis in elegance.

(4) *Political Despotism.* Louis took various steps to establish his political despotism. He crushed the power of the nobles and the administration of the provinces were left in the hands of '*Intendants*' who were directly responsible to the king. The powers of the French judicial courts known as '*the Parliaments*' were reduced. He set up *royal system of law and justice* and himself became the highest judicial authority and fountain-head of justice. Louis organized a permanent and well-equipped national army which helped him to establish an absolute rule in France.

(5) *Economic Policy.* Louis was assisted by his able Finance Minister **Colbert** who introduced various economic reforms, reorganized the national economy and improved the financial condition of the country. He removed the dishonest tax-collectors and increased the number of tax-payers. He reduced the direct taxes on land, freed the farmers from extra burden and in this way he promoted agriculture. He encouraged new industries and invited the foreign

skilled workers to settle in France. High import-duties were levied to encourage export and to discourage import. He encouraged internal trade by following a policy of free trade and by removing various provincial custom duties. He introduced uniform system of weights and measures. He constructed roads and canals to improve the means of communication. In order to promote foreign trade he established colonies in India, Africa and America and helped the French trading companies. By his reforms Colbert encouraged agriculture, trade and commerce and brought financial stability and economic prosperity in France. He built up the long neglected French economy and increased the income of the government. **John Conard** rightly observes, "*It was Colbert's expert handling of the economy of France that not only made possible Louis' programme for the cultural development of the country, but also helped France to withstand the strains of a series of costly wars.*"

(6) *Art and Literature.* Louis XIV was a great lover and patron of art, learning and literature. Poets like Racine, dramatists like Moliere, chroniclers like Pascal and Sarigne, philosophers like Bossuet and Voltaire, architects like Mansart, sculptors like Girardon and composer like Lully adorned and graced his court. Though Voltaire criticized the arbitrary taxation and luxury of the Court, yet he praised the intellectual and cultural achievements of Louis XIV and remarked, "*The Golden age of Louis XIV is the most Enlightened Age the World has ever seen.*" According to **John Conard**, "*French furniture, dress, literature and art became the model for Europe and the French language became the diplomatic language of the World.*" He further observes that the "*grand age of French culture came during the Age of Louis XIV and Paris remained the centre of culture for many generations afterwards.*"

(7) *Religious Persecution.* He reduced the influence of the Pope in managing the church in France. In this way he unified the country and made himself strong and powerful. But he reversed the policy of religious toleration followed by Henry IV towards the Protestants of France called the '*Huguenots*' and persecuted them. As a result many of them left France and took shelter in England and Netherlands. They were welcomed there because they were skilled workers and they served to expand industries. Their leaving the country was a great loss to France.

(8) *Foreign Policy of Louis XIV.* Louis was greatly influenced by his warlike and spirited War Minister, Francis Michel and military engineer Vauhan. At the same time the stable economy and vast resources created by Colbert and his desire to complete the natural boundaries of France and make it a powerful state in Europe forced him to follow the policy of imperialism and wage long and exhausting wars. He organized navy and encouraged the policy of colonization. Under him French colonies were established in India, Africa and America.

He fought many costly wars to expand his territories and to enhance his military glory. He claimed the whole of Spanish Netherlands i.e., Belgium because he was married to the daughter of King

Philip IV of Spain. The King of Spain refused to oblige him, so Louis waged a war against Spain in 1667 A.D. England, Holland and Sweden were united against Louis and they all helped Spain. Ultimately the Treaty of Aix-La-Chapelle was signed and France gained the southern part of Belgium.

Louis attacked Holland in 1672 A.D. because she had helped Spain against France and offered shelter to Huguenots of France. There was also colonial and commercial rivalry between the two countries. Sweden helped France while Spain, Austria and many German provinces sided with Holland. At last peace was signed in 1679 A.D. France acquired 'Franche Comte' from Spain, 'Alsace' from Austria and Luxembourg, Strassburg and some Rhine cities from Holland.

Louis attacked the rich district of the Rhine in Germany, known as the 'Palatinate' in 1683 A.D. and consequently a war ensued between France on one side and Austria, England, Spain, Holland, Sweden and many German states on the other side. This war, however, ended in 1697 A.D. by the Treaty of Ryswick and France lost the territories gained by him since 1680 A.D. except Strassburg.

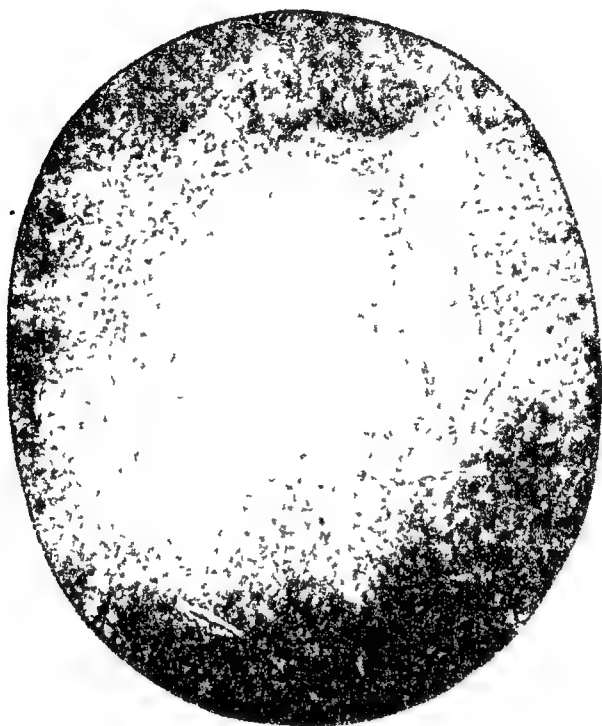
Charles II, the King of Spain was heirless. He nominated Philip, the grandson of Louis, as his successor by his last will in 1700 A.D. After his death, Louis tried to unite Spain and France. At this Austria waged a war against France and she was helped by England, Holland etc. This war, known as the *War of Spanish Succession* started in 1701 A.D. and came to an end by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 A.D. By this treaty Philip was recognized as the King of Spain but Louis was not allowed to amalgamate the two kingdoms.

(9) *Estimate of Louis XIV.* Louis was an able, and intelligent man. He was an absolute and grand monarch. He was a symbol of absolutism and served as a model for European monarchs. He introduced various economic reforms and encouraged art and literature. His intellectual and cultural achievements deserve all praise. He ushered in a Golden Age in France. But his policy of religious persecution, his pomp and show, and long and exhausting wars proved very harmful for France. According to John Conard, "The Age of Louis, the longest reign in history, was brilliant and the envy of Europe, yet it left France weakened. When he died in 1715, he left France a country full of an outward show of splendour, but full of discontent and poverty within." Dr. H.A.L. Fisher writes, "The history of Colbert's efforts to raise money for his master's wars is, therefore, a dark chapter of miscrey and oppression, offering a sinister contrast to the glitter and frivolity of Versailles"

At the time of his death he gave a valuable advice to his son Louis XV, "Do not copy me, but be a peaceful prince and let your chief task be to render happier the lot of your subjects." His advice went unheeded. His successors lacked intelligence and ability. They were extravagant and ease-loving. They brought the country on the threshold of the French Revolution in 1789 A.D.

SECTION 3—FREDERICK THE GREAT OF PRUSSIA (1740-86 A.D.)

Frederick the Great was the most famous ruler of the Hohenzollern family of Prussia. He was the most successful and enlightened despot of Europe. He enjoyed unlimited powers but used them



Frederick the Great.

for the welfare of his people. His childhood was, however, very miserable. He had great taste in dancing, music, poetry, literature and philosophy. His father gave him training in civil and military administration and he proved a worthy successor of his father. He came to the throne in 1740 A.D. and ruled Prussia upto 1786 A.D.

1. His Administrative Policy. Frederick succeeded in unifying the government of his scattered realm into a strong monarchy in which his power was absolute. He was the model of enlightened despotism because he used his powers for the welfare of the people and the glory of his country. According to Hayes, *"Enlightened despotism was brilliantly exemplified by Frederick the Great of Prussia, and it was an ideal for most of his monarchical contemporaries."* He had very lofty ideals of government such as—
(1) The monarch is not the absolute master, but only the first servant of the state. (2) The Prince is to the nation he governs, what the head is to the man; it is his duty to see, think and act for the whole community, that he may procure it every advantage of which it is capable. (3) The people are not there for the sake

of the rulers, but the rulers for the sake of the people. His government was not, "*of the people and by the people*", but "*everything for the people, nothing by the people*." He had concentrated all the authority of the state in his own person. He was his own Chief Minister, Commander-in-Chief and Foreign Minister. He used to get up very early in the morning and look after the affairs of the government. He acted as the head of all the departments, but he introduced efficiency in the spheres of administration.

2. Judicial System. Frederick reformed and reorganised the judicial system. He gave a new code of laws to the people which was clear definite and based on the principle of equality. Legal fees were made uniform throughout the country. All the cases were cleared within a year. Death penalty was rare and torture was abolished.

3. Incentive to Agriculture, Trade and Industries. He encouraged agriculture. Waste lands were reclaimed and canals were dug. Seeds, cattle and horses were distributed among the farmers. He took various steps to promote trade and industry. Many new factories were set up and roads were constructed to improve the means of communication. Ship-building and textile industries received his special attention and made much progress under his patronage. He passed many laws to regulate trade and industry.

Though he was not in favour of abolishing slavery but he saw to it that they were given fair treatment. No feudal lord could expel them from his land. It was the duty of the state to provide means of livelihood for the poor and the unemployed.

4. Religious Tolerance. Frederick was a staunch supporter of a secular state. He followed a policy of religious tolerance. The people were allowed to seek salvation in their own way. The majority of his subjects were Protestants but they could not persecute the Roman Catholics and the Jesuits. Religious fanaticism was suppressed with iron hands. Everyone could hold high office without any distinction of religious beliefs. He offered shelter to Huguenots who had fled away from France.

5. Great Lover of Art and Literature. Frederick was also a great lover of learning, art and literature. He established elementary schools and set up science academies and institutions for military training. He got a chance to live in the company of great French philosopher Voltaire. He had a good collection of valuable books in his palace. He devoted his spare time to music and literature. He was very fond of flute playing.

Like Louis XIV he loved grandeur. He beautified his capital and built a splendid palace. It was known all over Europe for beauty and grandeur. He named it '*Sans Souci*' which literally means '*a place free from worries*'.

6. Foreign Policy. Frederick was not only a capable ruler but also a great military genius. He had a well-equipped, disciplined and trained army consisting of about 2,00,000 soldiers. He followed an imperialistic policy and expanded the boundaries of his empire.

Maria Theresa succeeded to the throne of Austria after the death of his father. Frederick promised to respect the dominions of Maria. Later on, when differences arose between the two he attacked Austria and took the fertile valley of Silesia. As a result *War of Austrian Succession* started in 1740 A.D. This war ended in 1748 A.D. by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. By this treaty Prussia was allowed to retain Silesia permanently.

But the treaty of 1748 A.D. did not prove lasting. Maria Theresa entered into an agreement with France to check the aggressive attitude of Frederick. The English were thus forced to join hands with Prussia. A war broke out between the two groups in 1756 A.D. It is known as the *Seven Years' War*. It was fought in Europe, America and India. It came to end in 1763 A.D. by the Treaty of Paris. It recognized Prussia's claim to Silesia and Prussia became one of the strong powers of Europe.

The *first partition of Poland* took place in 1772 A.D. between Prussia, Russia and Austria. Prussia got a part of Poland lying between East Prussia and Brandenburg. In this way Frederick extended his dominion both by diplomacy and conquests and enhanced his international fame and glory. In the international sphere he followed the maxim, "*Take what you can ; you are never wrong unless you are obliged to give back*".

7. An Estimate. Frederick was an absolute and capable ruler. He was a model of enlightened despotism. He enjoyed unlimited powers but he used them for the welfare of his subjects. He organized his government on sound-footings and introduced an efficient system of administration. He brought peace and prosperity by following a judicious fiscal policy. He gave an equal handed justice to all and adopted a tolerant religious policy. He patronised and promoted learning, art and literature. According to W.N. Weech, "*He was a true father of his country and though he treated his ministers as mere clerks, making all decisions himself, he never shrank from the immense burdens of state.*" Through his wars and conquests he extended the boundaries of his empire and made Prussia a leading nation of Europe.

SECTION 4—ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS OF RUSSIA— PETER AND CATHERINE

Peter the Great of Russia (1682-1725 A.D.). Peter was also an absolute monarch of Russia who ruled from 1682 to 1725 A.D.

He was very tall and strong. He had vulgar tastes and violent temperament. He was self-willed and it is said that he committed brutal acts in his torture chamber. But he was very simple, honest and had high sense of public duty. He mixed with the peasants freely. He was a man of iron will and very hard working. He possessed tireless energy and keen curiosity. He understood the dignity of manual labour.



Peter the Great

At the time of his accession, Russia was an agricultural and backward country. He wanted to modernize Russia. In order to do this he visited various countries of Europe and studied their industries, armed forces, governments and customs. He himself worked in a shipyard in Holland. He travelled in disguise in England and Prussia. He brought trained workmen, artists, ship builders, scientists, etc. in Russia because he liked to Europeanize Russia so that she might take her place among the nations of Europe. He enjoyed unlimited powers of an absolute despot but never ignored the interests of the people. Once he had declared, "*The Czar is sovereign and autocrat, he is responsible to no one in the world.*"

His reign of about 43 years is known for the following events :—

(1) *Oppression of Revolutionaries—Strelitzes.* Some of his soldiers including his body-guards, known as 'Strelitzes' revolted when he was in England. He returned to Russia and suppressed their rebellion in a ruthless manner and restored order. Seven thousand persons were put to death, several by Peter himself. He did not spare even his son Alexis who had joined the rebels.

(2) *Reorganization of Army.* He organized a permanent army consisting of 2,00,000 soldiers instead of the old feudal army. It was paid by the government and was always ready to make any sacrifice for the monarch. It enhanced his power enormously. His naval force consisted of 48 large ships, 800 small vessels and 30,000 sailors.

(3) *Administration.* He introduced many reforms in his administration. The old parliament of Russia called 'Duma' was abolished. He constituted a small council to advise him in ad-

ministrative matters, and to carry out his plans. Some foreigners were also appointed to high posts. He reformed the police system and introduced a new code of law. The central government was no doubt absolute but he organized local self-government to look after the local affairs.

(4) *Religious Reforms.* Peter introduced absolutism even in the church and made it completely subordinate to the government. He abolished the office of Patriarch, the head of the orthodox church. It was now placed under the charge of a committee called '*Holy Synod*' which was fully controlled by Peter himself.

(5) *Social Reforms.* Peter introduced many social reforms in the Russian society to Europeanize it. Men had to shave off their beards and long moustaches. Long Russian coats were replaced by short German or English jackets. Barbers and tailors were posted at city gates to execute his orders. Heavy penalties were imposed on those who disobeyed his decrees. The women in Russia had been living in seclusion. He granted them social freedom. Now they mixed freely with men and they cast off their veils. They enjoyed the right to marry persons of their own choice. Smoking also became wide-spread in Russia now.

(6) *Welfare Activities.* He promoted trade and commerce by constructing roads and canals. He encouraged agriculture and industry. He introduced printing press and Julian Calendar. He established medical and technical school for the training of engineers and army officers, etc. He encouraged western science and education in Russia. For this purpose he invited European scholars in Russia. He left no stone unturned in modernizing Russia. Culture and civilization witnessed remarkable progress in his reign.

(7) *Grandeur.* Peter was a great lover of pomp, show and grandeur and he imitated Louis XIV of France in this respect. He built a splendid capital on the Neva River at the head of the Gulf of Finland. This land was acquired from Sweden. He named it St. Petersburg. He adorned it with great squares, tall churches and magnificent buildings. It was renamed Peterograd in 1914 A.D. and Leningrad in 1924 A.D.

(8) *Foreign Policy.* Russia could not establish commercial relations with the Western Europe on a large scale because she was cut off from the open sea. Peter wanted to acquire sea-ports on the Baltic and Black Sea. So he waged wars against Turkey and Sweden. He captured the Port of Azof in the Black Sea from Turkey. He also succeeded in taking some territory on the Baltic between Prussia and Finland. Peter now had one "*Window*" to the West.

Under the able guidance of Peter, Russia became one of the leading nations of Europe. It has been rightly remarked that Russia came out of the shade into a place in the sun. John Conard rightly observes, "*When Peter died he left the new Russia with a*

strongly centralized government, a powerful position in the Baltic Sea, and a growing interest in Western European affairs."

2. Catherine II of Russia (1762-1796 A.D.). After Peter the Great, Catherine II is regarded as the most absolute ruler of Russia. She was a German princess. She was very intelligent and ambitious. Her husband, Peter III, was mental retarded, ease-loving and had no ability to govern the country. Consequently in 1762 A.D. Catherine took over the reins of government in her own hands.

(1) *Domestic Policy.* Catherine was an absolute but capable ruler. In order to introduce *efficiency in the administration*, she divided her empire into fifty provinces which were further divided into districts. Each unit was placed under the charge of able and experienced officers. She was in *favour of human rights* and attached great importance to the right of freedom. She used to say, "*King is for the nation and not the nation for the king.*" She also abolished the capital punishment.

She had a great love for *education and literature*. She set-up schools, hospitals and orphanages for the welfare of her subjects. Though she was not educated yet she showed a great interest in the writings of foreign writers like Voltaire, Diderot and Montesquieu.

Catherine believed in *secularism* and granted religious freedom to all. She was against luxuries in the church. She confiscated the property of the church and used it for the welfare of the people. Church was kept strictly under the power of the ruler.

She *favoured slavery*. The serfs had to bear the ill-treatment at the hands of their cruel masters. They could not lodge complaints against them. They led a wretched life and their lot was even worse than before.

Catherine followed an *aggressive foreign policy*. Russian expansion to the West was blocked by Turkey and Poland. She waged a war against the Turks and obtained the land north of the Black Sea. She took advantage of the weakness of Poland and joined hands with Frederick II of Prussia and Maria Theresa of Austria. Partition of Poland between these powers took place in 1772, 1793 and 1795 A.D. This erased Poland completely from the map of Europe. Russia received more than half of the country and now her borders extended upto Austria and Prussia. Thus Catherine pushed her boundaries southward and westward. Thus she left Russia as one of the great powers of Europe.

SECTION 5—ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS OF AUSTRIA (JOSEPH II) AND SPAIN (CHARLES III)

1. Austria's Enlightened Despot—Joseph II—(1780-1790 A.D.). Joseph II was the most enlightened despot of Austria.

He was the son of Maria Theresa and came to the throne in 1780 A.D. after the death of her mother. He introduced various reforms for the welfare of his subjects and tried to establish a strong centralized government in Austria. His reign is important for the following things :—

(1) *National Integration.* Austria was inhabited by people of different races. The Slavs and Germans lived in Moravia, the Maghyars in Hungary, the Italians in Milan and the Flemings in Austrian Netherlands. He wanted to unify all these divergent areas under the leadership of Austria and bring about rational integration. In order to foster national feelings he declared the languages spoken by the different nations as state languages.

(2) *Promotion of Philosophy.* Joseph had great respect and regard for the philosophers. He used to say, "*I have made philosophy the ideal of the state.*" He believed that the philosophical ideals would regenerate Austria. He visited France to see Rousseau and Turgot and had a first hand knowledge of their philosophical ideas.

(3) *Steps against Priests.* Joseph was a Catholic Christian but he was deadly against priests. He demolished about 600 monasteries, confiscated their property which was spent for the education of the masses. He declared performance of marriages a civil instead of a religious ceremony and thus reduced the power of the priests. He did not recognize the authority of the Pope. He followed a policy of religious toleration and granted citizenship to Protestants and Greek Orthodox Christians. He also granted civil rights to the Jews.

(4) *Steps against Feudalism.* He was against feudalism because he regarded it the avowed enemy of the people. He abolished serfdom and deprived the nobles of their certain special privileges and rendered them powerless. The feudal lords could not extract forced labour from the peasants, who were later on made the owners of the land. Joseph had lofty ideals and high intentions. He was the true well-wisher of the people. He did not succeed in realizing his ideals because the people were uneducated and belonged to different nationalities.

2. The Enlightened Despot of Spain—Charles III

Charles III was the enlightened despot of Spain and he ascended the throne in 1759 A.D. Like Frederick the Great of Prussia, he had concentrated all the powers of the state in his own person. He was his own Prime Minister and Commandar-in-Chief. People had no hand in the affairs of the government. Charles was a great lover and patron of learning and education. He established schools and colleges to promote education. The educational institutions were freed from the control of the church. Great stress was laid on teaching of science and philosophy. He set-up many agricultural institutions and training schools to encourage agriculture and industry. He constructed roads and improved the means of communication to promote trade and commerce. The ports of Spain were

thrown open for international trade. One fifth of the land in Spain was owned by the monasteries and the priests. There were about 66,000 priests and 63,000 monasteries. Charles imposed taxes on the priests and did not recognize the authority of the Pope in Spain. Though Charles III was an absolute ruler yet he used his powers for the welfare of his subjects.

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Meaning, Chief Characteristics and Causes of the Growth of Enlightened Despotism

(1) *Meaning.* Enlightened Despots enjoyed absolute powers but used them for the welfare of their subjects. They were grand and benevolent.

(2) *Chief Characteristics.* Absolute but good rule ; Benevolent rulers ; Equal justice ; Great building and construction activity ; Good administration ; Promotion of education and literature ; Various reforms for the welfare of the people.

(3) *Causes of Growth of Absolute Monarchy.* (i) Need for peace and order ; (ii) Decline of Feudalism ; (iii) Rise of the Middle class ; (iv) Change in the methods of warfare ; (v) Nationalism and Patriotism ; (vi) Renaissance and Reformation ; (vii) Famous writers ; (viii) Powerful monarchs.

SECTION 2 :—Enlightened Despots of Europe : Louis XIV of France

Model of grand monarchy ; His early life ; His character ; Craze for grandeur ; Political despotism ; Economic Policy ; Lover of Art and Literature ; Religious Persecution ; Foreign Policy and Estimate.

SECTION 3 :—Frederick the Great of Prussia

His administrative policy and lofty ideals of government ; Judicial System ; Incentive to Agriculture, Industry and Trade ; Religious Tolerance ; Great Lover of Art and Literature ; Foreign policy.

SECTION 4 :—Peter the Great and Catherine of Russia

(i) *Peter the Great of Russia.* Early Life and character ; Oppression of revolutionaries ; Reorganisation of army ; Administration ; Religious reforms ; Social reforms ; Welfare activities ; Grandeur ; Foreign policy.

(ii) *Catherine II of Russia.* Her accession to throne after a revolt against her husband ; Domestic policy—efficiency in administration ; Favoured human rights ; Belief in secularism ; Favoured slavery ; Aggressive and forward Foreign Policy.

SECTION 5 :—Joseph II of Austria and Charles III of Spain

(i) *Joseph II of Austria*. National Integration; Lover of Philosophy; Against priests; Against feudalism.

(ii) *Charles III of Spain*. Concentration of power; Lover of education; Incentive to agriculture, trade and industries; Against priests and Pope.

University and other Important Questions

1. What do you know about the enlightened despots of Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries? Write in brief about them.

2. Discuss the achievements and failures of the "Grand Monarchs." Illustrate your answer with not more than three examples. (B.U. 1956)

3. What do you understand by the term 'Grand Monarch'? Discuss the achievements and failures of Grand Monarchy in any two of the following countries.—(a) France, (b) Prussia and (c) Russia. (B.U. 1959)

4. Explain the meaning of the terms, 'Grand Monarchy' and 'Enlightened Despotism' with special reference to the rule of Louis XIV in France and of Frederick the Great in Prussia. (B.U. 1961)

5. Bring out the significance of Louis XIV's rule in France for the development of government and administration in Europe. (B.U. 1962)

6. Bring out the full meaning of the expression 'Grand Monarchy' using the rule of Louis XIV as an illustration of it.

7. Explain clearly the concept of 'Absolute Monarchy'. Show how it was practised by Louis XIV of France or Frederick II of Prussia. (B.U. 1965)

8. Explain why Louis XIV of France is known as the 'Grand Monarch'. (B.U. 1967)

9. Discuss the achievements of Louis XIV or Frederick the Great. (B.U. 1970)

10. Who were the enlightened monarchs in Europe? Why were they so-called? Explain. (B.U. 1971)

11. Explain why Louis XIV of France is known as the 'Grand Monarch'. Do you hold him responsible for the outbreak of the French Revolution. (B.U. 1972)

12. Discuss the achievements of King Frederick the Great of Prussia. (B.U. 1972)

13. Write short notes on the following :—

(1) Peter the Great of Russia. (2) Frederick the Great of Prussia. (3) Louis XIV of France. (4) Catherine II was perhaps the Greatest woman to sit on a throne. Prove the statement. (5) In spite of high ideals, Joseph II of Austria could not succeed. Give reasons.

14. Fill in the Blanks. —

(1) was the most absolute monarch of France.

(2) Leningrad was built by

(3) Louis XIV built his palace in . . .

(4) Frederick the Great came to the throne in

(5) was the son of Maria Theresa.

15. Answer in 'Yes' or 'No' :—

- (1) Enlightened despots were so-called because they were educated.
- (2) Louis XIV was very fond of grandeur.
- (3) Frederick II was his own Prime Minister and Commander-in-Chief.
- (4) Joseph II was the enlightened despot of France.
- (5) Catherine II revolted against her husband.

16. Name the following :—

- (1) Two absolute rulers of Russia (1) , (2)
 - (2) The most absolute ruler of France (1)
 - (3) Queen who killed her husband before accession (1)
 - (4) Ruler who honoured philosophers the most (1)
 - (5) Ruler who began to prepare a Code of Law (1)
 - (6) Ruler who killed his son because he took part in a revolt against him (1)
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The English Revolution of 1688

✓ SECTION 1—NAME, CAUSES AND COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION OF 1688 A.D.

The Parliaments in the Tudor Period were subservient and acted according to the wishes of the Tudor Kings. So the Tudor Kings were able to pursue their policies without any hinderance from the Parliament. But the situation reversed under the Stuarts. James I could not pull on well with his Parliaments. In the reign of Charles I the situation became critical. It led to the Civil War in 1642 A.D. which dragged on upto 1649 A.D. when Charles I was beheaded. Charles II was a wise and tactful ruler. He followed a cautious policy because he did not want to go on his travels again. He was succeeded by his brother James II in 1685 A.D. He was not so careful as his brother. He wanted to establish his own absolutism and Catholic Church in England. Both the Whigs and Tories became tired of his arbitrary rule and his religious policy. They invited his son-in-law William of Orange and his daughter Mary to come to England from Holland and take the throne. They accepted the invitation and landed in England with a large army. The people welcomed them and without a single battle James II fled to France. Consequently, William and his wife Mary became the joint rulers of England in 1688 A.D. This event is known as the Glorious Revolution or the Bloodless Revolution in the History of England.

1. Why is the Glorious Revolution so-called? Now the question arises as to why this revolution is called a 'Glorious Revolution'. It is called a Glorious or Bloodless Revolution because it was accomplished in a peaceful manner. A king was dethroned and another king was enthroned without shedding a single drop of blood, massacres or civil wars. Secondly, it put an end to the royal absolutism and led to the establishment of a constitutional monarchy in England. It asserted the supremacy of the Parliament and the political power passed from the hands of the crown to those of the Parliament and the people. This change occurred without making any change in the constitution. Thirdly, it was, at the same time, the work of the whole nation and not of one party or group.

2. Causes of the Glorious Revolution. The following causes were responsible for the Glorious Revolution of 1688 in England :—

(1) *Despotism of James II.* Like other Stuart kings James II also believed in the theory of Divine Right of Kings. He considered himself as the representative of God on earth and held himself responsible to no one except to God for his actions and policies. He thought himself above law and demanded passive obedience from the people. He acted in arbitrary and unconstitutional way and this brought him in conflict with the people. His despotic and absolute rule had become intolerable for the people of England. This led to the Glorious Revolution of 1688 A.D.



James II

(2) *Party System of England.* The Whig and the Tory were the two political parties in England at that time. The Whigs believed in individual freedom and supremacy of the Parliament, while the Tories supported the king and the church of England. Both these parties were very powerful and had great influence in England. The Whigs were displeased with James II because he wanted to rule without Parliament. The Tories were also angry because of his religious intolerance and strong faith in Catholicism. So both the parties joined hands to overthrow his arbitrary rule.

(8) *Standing Army and Violation of the Laws of the Land.* James II increased the strength of the standing army from 6000 to 30,000. The new recruits were mostly Catholics. He appointed many Roman Catholics to high posts in the army. He did so to establish his despotic rule in England. This was the clear violation of the Test Act and so all these appointments were declared illegal and unconstitutional by the Parliament. At the same time, there was a great resentment among the people when James II tried to suppress the liberties of the people with the help of army. Instead of accepting the verdict of the Parliament he dissolved it in 1685 A.D. That was too much for the people and even his supporters doubted the wisdom of his actions and began to oppose him.

(4) *Appointment of Catholics on Key-posts.* While the Parliament opposed the appointment of Catholics in navy and army, the judges favoured James II and recognised his power to make appointments to higher posts. As a result he began to appoint Catholics to high civil posts as well. He appointed them as his Ministers and Members of the Privy Council. He appointed a Roman Catholic as the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. He appointed a staunch Catholic as the Dean of the Christ Church in Oxford. He dis-

missed many persons from high positions because they did not honour Catholicism. He removed the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University because he refused to confer M.A. Degree on a Catholic student. Twenty-five fellows of the Magdalen College were dismissed because they did not accept a Catholic as their chairman. This undue favour shown to the Catholics and persecution of the Protestants were resented by the majority of the people who severely criticized his partial policy towards the Catholics.

(4) *Re-Establishment of Court of High Commission.* The king used to punish those people who opposed his actions and policies with the help of the Court of High Commission. By the Act of 1641 A.D., the Parliament had deprived the king of the right of establishing such a court. But he revised that court in another shape, by establishing the Court of Ecclesiastical Commission to establish his supremacy over the church and suppress his opponents. This action of James II antagonised the people who could not tolerate the violation of the law of the country by the king.

(6) *Suspending and Dispensing Powers.* The judiciary was subservient to James II and the judges were mere tools in his hands. He claimed the right of suspending and dispensing powers. By his dispensing powers he could exempt certain people from the operation of the acts passed by the Parliament by his suspending power he could suspend even the laws passed by the Parliament. His claim to these powers was questioned by the people who regarded the use of these powers as illegal and unconstitutional. It was felt that no one, not even the king, had the right to break the laws of the country which were above the king himself. So his unconstitutional acts were greatly resented by the people.

(7) *Cruelties on his Opponents.* The Duke of Manmouth claimed the throne of England and raised a standard of revolt against James II. He was defeated and put to death. The Chief Justice named Jeffreys and four other judges committed great atrocities on the followers of Manmouth. More than 300 were hanged and about 800 were exiled. Even the Tories shuddered at the cold-blooded policy of James II. His harsh policy and cruel acts made him unpopular. The people began to hate him and tried to put an end to his arbitrary rule.

(8) *Harmful Relations with France.* Louis XIV, the ruler of France, was a staunch supporter of Catholicism like James II. The Protestants of France, called Huguenots, had gained religious freedom by the Edict of Nantes in 1598 A.D. Louis XIV revoked them in 1685 A.D. and began to persecute the Huguenots. It was suspected by the people of England that James II was also in league with Louis XIV and was trying to restore Catholicism in England. James II wanted to establish friendly relations with Louis XIV. He allowed Colbert, the Trade and Commerce Minister of France to exercise control over the trade and industries of England. The English could not tolerate that their king should be dictated by a foreigner.

(9) *Declaration of Indulgences.* By the First Declaration of Indulgence in 1687 A.D. James II granted freedom of worship to Catholics and Dissenters and removed all the restrictions imposed on them by the Test Act and the Clarendon Code. Now they could hold high posts of the State. It was resented both by the Whigs and the Tories. They thought that James II was restoring Catholicism under the cloak of religious toleration. He issued the Second Declaration of Indulgence in 1688 A.D. and ordered the clergymen to read it in the churches on two consecutive Sundays. But such a policy was greatly resented by the people.

(10) *Trial of Seven Bishops.* The Arch-bishop of Canterbury and six other bishops requested the king to absolve them of the duty of reading out the Declaration of Indulgences. They also requested him to withdraw the Declarations and questioned his power to dispense with the law of the land. The king simply became angry. He arrested the bishops and put them in the tower. They were accused of treason and tried by a jury. The jury, however, declared them 'not guilty' and acquitted them. The people greatly rejoiced at the decision while James II felt humiliated and infuriated. In fact, James lacked both tact and wisdom. He did not understand the gravity of the situation and by his arbitrary action he turned the whole nation against him.

(11) *Birth of a Son.* James II had two daughters and no son. The people put up with his illegal, unconstitutional and cruel acts because they knew that James II was not going to live long on account of his old age. They hoped that James II would die without a son and after his death, his daughter Mary, wife of William of Orange, a Protestant King of Holland, would come to the throne of England and they would heave a sigh of relief. But a son was born to his wife, Queen Mary of Modena on June 10, 1688 A.D. That was not a happy news. It shocked the whole nation. The people thought that the new prince would prove to be a staunch Catholic like that of his father. So they prepared themselves to take a revolutionary step to put an end to his reign.



William of Orange

2. **Events.** To put an end to the arbitrary and autocratic rule of James II and to get rid of his atrocities and tyrannies the Whig and the Tory leaders sent an invitation to William and Mary through Admiral Herbert to come to England with an army to save the constitutional liberties of England. William was a Protestant and believed in constitutional monarchy. At the same time

he was harassed by the imperialistic designs of Louis XIV of France and needed England's help very badly at that critical juncture. Thus he willingly accepted the invitation and landed at the Port of Torbay at the head of an army of 15,000 soldiers on 5th November, 1688 A.D. As he marched towards London he was accorded a warm reception by the people.

James II wanted to face William but he could not do so because his Commander-in-Chief Churchill, his army, his friends and even his daughter Anne deserted him and went over to the other side. In this state of helplessness he said, "*Heaven help me, even my own children have deserted me.*" He fled away to France on December 23, 1688 A.D. with his queen and son lest he should be beheaded like that of Charles I. He lived there till his death in 1701 A.D.

As James II had abdicated the throne and fled away to France, the throne was declared empty and a Convention Parliament was summoned. It accepted William and Mary as the joint monarchs of England. In this way both William and Mary came to the throne of England on 13th February, 1689 A.D.

SECTION 2—RESULTS AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE GLORIOUS REVOLUTION

The Glorious Revolution of 1688 A.D. was a great landmark in the constitutional history of England. It gave a fatal blow to absolute monarchy in England and paved the way for the supremacy of the Parliament, popular sovereignty and democratic system in England.

(1) *End of the Struggle between the King and the Parliament.* The struggle between the King and the Parliament which began in 1603 A.D. with the coming of the Stuart dynasty came to an end in 1688-89 A.D. It was the victory of the Parliament and the 'Rule of Law'. The struggle between the King and the Parliament continued during the reign of every Stuart king. However, after the flight of James II to France, the throne of England was offered jointly to William and Mary who accepted the conditions laid down in the 'Declaration of Rights.' According to Trevelyan, "*The long and revolutionary conflict of Crown and Parliament gave place to co-operation between the two powers, with Parliament as the leading partner.*"

(2) *End of the Divine Rights of the King.* The Stuart kings believed in the theory of Divine Rights of King. They considered themselves as the representative of God on earth and were not bound by the laws of the land. No one could question their authority. They claimed suspending and dispensing powers. This revolution gave a death blow to the theory of Divine Rights of King and proved that the King's powers are based on the will of

the general public and he is not above the law. He can be enthroned and dethroned by the people.

(3) *Establishment of Constitutional Monarchy.* It marked the victory of the Parliament over royal despotism. It began the era of limited and constitutional monarchy in England. It gave a fatal blow to absolutism. No king could now dare exercise arbitrary powers. It established the supremacy of the Parliament. The king could not levy taxes and maintain army without the consent of the Parliament. Only the Parliament had the right to enact or suspend any law. Thus, the powers of the king were much restricted and the Parliament became more powerful. The king now became a constitutional head and the political power passed into the hands of the Parliament. Thus, it paved the way for true democracy by asserting the authority of the Parliament.

(4) *Independence of Judiciary.* The judges had to honour the wishes of the kings while deciding the cases because they were appointed and could be dismissed by them. The Glorious Revolution established the independence of the judiciary. The judges were now no longer under the control of the kings. They could not be removed from office unless they were found guilty or unless both the Houses of the Parliament presented an address to the king for their removal. So they were now in a position to give an even-handed justice to the people.

(5) *Safe-guarded the Liberties of the People.* William and Mary had sworn to rule according to the conditions laid down in the Declaration of Rights. The king could not now rule arbitrarily. He could not levy taxes without the consent of the Parliament or use suspending or dispensing powers. He could not maintain a standing army. He was not to interfere in the election of the Parliament. The members of the Parliament were to enjoy the freedom of debate. Freedom of Press was also ensured. The people were granted an opportunity to refute the charges levelled against them. These provisions safe-guarded the liberties of the people.

(6) *Victory of the Protestants.* The Glorious Revolution marked the victory of Protestants. It was laid down in the Bill of Rights of 1689 A.D. that a Roman Catholic or a person married to a Roman Catholic could not occupy the throne of England. It is true that all religions except Roman Catholics were granted freedom of worship by the Toleration Act of 1689 A.D. The Catholics were, however, persecuted and had to undergo hardships for more than a century.

(7) *Increase in the Prestige of England.* The Stuart Kings were mere tools in the hands of French rulers and followed a very weak Foreign Policy. The accession of William III enabled her to follow an independent foreign policy and play an important roll in the politics of Europe. William successfully waged a war against France and checked her ambitious designs on Belgium and Holland. He forced Louis XIV to sign the Treaty of Ryswick by which the

later recognized him as the legal ruler of England. Later on he formed a Grand Alliance against France. As a result France was defeated very badly in the War of Spanish Succession. This victory made England the first class naval power in Europe.

About the importance of this revolution **Trevelyan** remarks, *"The Revolution of 1688 A.D. embodied the rights of the people against the ruler and laid down that the king was holding the government on contract basis and consequently, the legal sovereign had no right to subvert the rights of the people. The Revolution, therefore, decided that the king's title was based on the popular will and not on any Divine Right and the people had the right to impose on him any limitations they liked. In short, the Revolution established constitutional monarchy and finally decided that neither the king nor the Parliament was the lawful sovereign of England. The sovereign henceforth, was to be King-in-Parliament."*

SECTION 3—ACTS PASSED TO ACHIEVE THE OBJECTIVES OF THE REVOLUTION

William and Mary summoned the Convention Parliament in 1689 A.D., which passed the following acts to achieve the objectives of the Revolution :—

1. **Bill of Rights, 1689 A.D.** William and Mary accepted the throne on the conditions contained in the Declaration of Rights. It was enacted into law in the form of the Bill of Rights of 1689 A.D. Its main provisions were as under :—

(i) The King of England was not to exercise dispensing and suspending powers.

(ii) The king was not to levy taxes without the consent of the Parliament.

(iii) The king was not to maintain any standing army.

(iv) The prerogative courts such as the Court of Ecclesiastical Commission were declared illegal.

(v) The king was not to interfere in the elections of the Parliament. It was laid down that the members of the Parliament were to enjoy freedom of speech and debate.

(vi) The public was to have the right to send petitions to the king.

(vii) A Roman Catholic or a person married to a Roman Catholic could not occupy the throne of England.

(viii) William and Mary will rule England jointly. After the death of one, the other will continue to rule. After the death of both, the throne is to be occupied by their descendants. If they are heirless, Queen Anne and her descendants would rule England.

2. **Mutiny Act of 1689 A.D.** By this act the king was allowed to maintain a standing army but the grants for the same were to be sanctioned by the Parliament every year. Thus this Act led to the calling of the Parliament at least once in a year.

3. **Toleration Act, 1694 A.D.** This act granted religious freedom to all except the Roman Catholics.

4. **Triennial Act of 1694 A.D.** This act laid down that the Parliament was to dissolve itself after three years. The king was authorised to order the election of the new Parliament only after three years. This Act thus put a check on the arbitrary powers of the king.

5. **Act of Settlement of 1701 A.D.** The main object of this act was to settle the question of succession to the English throne. Mary died as heirless in 1694 A.D. None of Queen Anne's children also survived. She was not also expected to give birth to another child, so Act of Settlement was passed in 1701 A.D. The main provisions of this act were as under :—

(i) The throne of England was to be occupied by Sophia the Electress of Hanover and by her Protestant heirs after her death.

(ii) Only Protestants were to succeed to the English throne. The new king was to belong to the Church of England and he was to take the Coronation Oath according to the Church of England.

(iii) The English were not to be dragged into any war for the defence of any territory which did not belong to the Crown of England without the consent of the Parliament.

(iv) King of England was not to go out of England, Scotland or Ireland without the consent of the Parliament.

(v) No person who was not born in England, Scotland or Ireland or the British colonies was to be appointed as a member of either of the House of the Parliament.

(vi) The king was not to offer service or land to any foreigner in England.

(vii) No person who was an employee of the British Government or who received pension from the state was to become the member of the Parliament.

(viii) The judges were to hold office due to good behaviour and not due to the pleasure of the king. Judges could be removed from office only if both the Houses of the Parliament presented a joint address to the king.

(ix) The royal pardon was not to be granted to a person impeached by the House of Commons in the Parliament.

(x) Every king was to confirm the laws and statutes of England on his accession.

All these measures completed the objectives of the Revolution of 1688 A.D. They put an end to the arbitrary powers of the king and established the supremacy of the Parliament. In this way they put the liberty of the people of England on a sound and firm footing.

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Name, Causes and Course of the Glorious Revolution of 1688 A.D.

James II was dethroned and William and Mary occupied the throne of England in 1688 A.D. This change is called the Glorious Revolution.

(1) *Why the Glorious Revolution is so-called?* It occurred peacefully and without bloodshed. It put an end to royal absolutism and established constitutional monarchy in England.

(2) *Causes.* (1) Despotism of James II ; (2) Party system of England ; (3) High ranks to Catholics in the Army ; (4) Catholics on key-posts ; (5) Re-establishment of Court of High Commission ; (6) Suspending and Dispensing Powers ; (7) Cruelties on opponents ; (8) Harmful Relations with France ; (9) Declaration of Indulgences ; (10) Trial of Seven Bishops ; (11) Birth of a son.

(3) *Events.* Whigs and Tories invited William and Mary ; They landed at Torbay ; James II's soldiers, friends and relatives joined the other side ; James fled to France ; Throne of England was occupied jointly by William and Mary on the conditions laid down in the Declaration of Rights.

SECTION 2 :—Results and Importance

(1) End of struggle between the kings and the Parliament ; (2) End of Divine Rights of the King ; (3) Establishment of constitutional monarchy ; (4) Independent Judiciary ; (5) Safe-guarded the liberties of the People ; (6) Victory of the Protestants ; (7) Increase in the Prestige of England.

SECTION 3 :—Acts passed to achieve the objectives of the Revolution

(1) Bill of Rights of 1689 A.D. ; (2) Mutiny Act of 1689 A.D. ; (3) Toleration Act of 1694 A.D. ; (4) Triennial Act of 1694 A.D. ; (5) Act of Settlement of 1701 A.D.

University and other Important Questions

1. Describe the Glorious Revolution of 1688 A.D. Why is it so-called ? Explain the most important changes which it brought about in England.
2. State the causes and results of the Glorious Revolution of 1688 A.D.
3. Describe the causes which led to the unpopularity and downfall of James II.

4. Describe the acts which brought to an end the despotism in England.
 5. Give short answers to the following :—
 - (1) Why is the Revolution of 1688 called a Glorious Revolution ?
 - (2) Bill of Rights of 1689 A.D.
 - (3) Act of Settlement of 1701 A.D.
 6. Fill in the blanks in the following :—
 - (1) James II came to the throne of England in
 - (2) James had faith in religion.
 - (3) Some prominent leaders of England invited to save the Protestant Religion in England.
 - (4) James II fled away to France in
 - (5) and were the daughters of James II.
 7. Answer in 'Yes' or 'No' :—
 - (1) James II was a Protestant.
 - (2) The Revolution of 1688 A.D. increased the powers of the king.
 - (3) William was the King of Holland.
 - (4) Mary, the daughter of James II, was a Roman Catholic.
-

The American Revolution (1775 to 1783 A.D.)

After the discovery of America by Columbus, Spain established various colonies in America. Later on France and Holland also set up their colonies there. The English did not lag behind. They also established their colonies in America in the 17th and 18th centuries. There were 13 English colonies occupied by people of varying character. The five southern colonies—Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia produced cotton and tobacco. There the land was cultivated by slave labour. The inhabitants of the four northern colonies such as Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Maine were more educated and politically more conscious. They had faith in Puritanism. They were very hard-working and lived on farms. There was no slavery there. The four middle colonies comprised of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware were occupied by Quakers and Catholics. Their original inhabitants were known as the Red Indians. These colonies had assemblies chosen by the people. These colonies were controlled by the Government of England. They were separated from one another and had no political connection. They could not establish relations among themselves without the permission of the British Government. The English followed a policy of exploitation towards these colonies and imposed many political and economic restrictions on them. This resulted in the outbreak of the American Revolution in 1775 A.D. It was a great land-mark in the history of the world and produced very important and far-reaching effects on the subsequent history of the human race. It gave a severe blow to the theory of absolute monarchy. This revolution proved a source of great inspiration to the freedom-loving people of other countries of the world.

SECTION 1—CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

The American Revolution or the American War of Independence broke out in 1775 during the reign of George III and came to an end in 1783. The English were defeated and they lost their thirteen colonies. The victory of the colonies led to the establishment of the United States of America. The following causes were responsible for this revolution :—

(1) *Defective System of Administration in the Colonies.* Their system of government was very defective. The colonies were governed by Governors, Captains and Colonels who were nominated by the British Government. The colonies had their elected assemblies but the governors were not responsible to them. This system resulted in the conflict between the two. The people of the colonies greatly opposed the English claim of legislation and taxation. Laws passed in England were often unsuitable to the people living at such a distance and under such divergent conditions. The colonists wanted to make their own laws to suit their own needs.

(2) *Economic Exploitation.* The English thought that the colonies existed for the mother country. So they followed a policy of economic exploitation of the colonies. Various restrictions were imposed on their trade and industries as well as on their imports and exports. The *Navigation Acts* of 1651, 1660 and 1680 gave monopoly to the English ships to carry goods to and from the colonies. These laws not only infringed the sovereignty of the colonies but also proved very harmful for their economic, industrial and commercial development. The English also controlled the production, import and export of the colonies. The colonies could not manufacture paper, hats, steel and woollen goods so that they might not compete with the British goods. The colonies could import woollen and hardware goods only from England. They were required to export cotton, coffee, sugar, tobacco etc. to England alone. The goods exported from the colonies were first sent to England and from there they were shipped to other European countries. The *Sugar Act* of 1764 A.D. empowered the British government to levy tax on sugar and other articles imported by the colonies. The *Writs of Assistance* enabled the English officers to search the houses and ships of the suspected smugglers. A storm of protest was raised against such a practice. The colonists thought that this was the violation of their basic rights. Similarly, the *Stamp Act* of 1765, which required that all the legal documents should bear a revenue stamp, was strongly resented by the colonists. Another law permitted the *English Officers*, accused of crime in the new world, to be sent to England for trial. The colonists opposed this act because they said that it accounted to acquitting criminals, because the British courts would favour the officers. Though these laws were strict for the colonies yet they did not harm them in actual practice, because these laws stood merely on paper and were not strictly enforced by the government. The colonists usually used to violate the *Navigation Act* and *Custom Laws* and carry on their trade with the European countries. But when George III came to the throne in 1760 he tried to enforce these laws very strictly. But this was strongly opposed by the colonists.

(3) *Stationing of Army.* An army consisting of 10,000 soldiers was placed in America to protect the colonists from foreign invasions. The colonists suspected the intentions of George III. According to **John Conard**, the colonists feared that the real purpose of the army in their midst was to back up the British Tax

Collectors rather than to protect the Americans from an attack of a foreign power.

(4) *Lack of Loyalty for England.* The people of these colonies had no love and loyalty for England. Pilgrim Fathers, Dissenters and Catholics had settled in these colonies because they were tired of the religious intolerance, oppression and persecution of the Kings of England. Sometimes, bad characters of England were also sent there. In this way these colonies were inhabited by either those persons who had their religious grievances or those who were bad characters. The people of both of these categories could not be expected to have any love for England. The long distance between the two countries and lack of means of communication weakened the ties between England and her colonies and the British government could not exercise an effective control over them.

(5) *Religious and Temperamental Difference.* Most of the American colonists were Puritans while England had faith in the Church of England. Moreover, the colonists were liberal and broad-minded while the English were conservative and rigid. The English society was old, elaborate and artificial and the Englishmen were fond of old customs, traditions and institutions. On the other hand, the American society was new, simple and raw. The colonists were free-minded and liberal. Under these circumstances there was no possibility of any compromise between the two and a conflict was inevitable.

(6) *Self-sufficiency of the People of the Colonies.* In the beginning the colonists were dependent on England for the articles of daily use. As the time passed on they took various steps to improve agriculture and industry. They became self-reliant and self-sufficient and produced all the articles of daily use in the colonies. They were no longer dependent on England and were not eager to maintain any contact with the mother country. As such they tried to seek more autonomy and freedom. In the reign of Queen Anne, **Cornbury**, Governor of New York, observed, "*If once they can clothe themselves without the help of England, they who are already not very fond of submitting to government would soon think of putting into execution designs they have long harboured in their breasts*"

(7) *No Danger of any French Attack.* The English imposed various political and economical restrictions upon the colonies but they remained loyal to the mother country because of their protection against the French invasion. The conquest of Canada by the English after the Seven Years' War (1756-63), however reduced the danger of the French attack. The colonies now no longer stood in need of the help of the mother-country for their defence. They now felt it useless to stick to the mother-country and hence they started a struggle for their independence. A French writer has rightly remarked, "*England will soon repent of having removed the only check that could keep her colonies in awe.*" Similarly, **George Louis Bar** observes, "*the French menace was destroyed, they moved swiftly towards*

independence; not in order to preserve civil or political liberty, but because they had nothing further to gain by remaining in the empire".

(8) *Help from France.* The French suffered a great humiliation at the hands of the English when they were defeated in the Seven Years' War (1756-63). In order to avenge their defeat they began to instigate the colonists to revolt against the English and promised to help them in this struggle against the English.

(9) *Stamp Act, 1765 A.D.* England had spent a lot of money on the defence of her colonies in America during the Seven Years' War. At the same time they needed money to raise an army to protect these colonies from the natives of North America. They wanted that the colonies should share the financial burden. The colonists were, however, prepared neither to share the financial burden nor contribute towards the defence of the colonies in future. George III and his ministers followed an unwise and tactless policy towards the colonies which proved the immediate cause of conflict. They not only enforced the Navigation Act and Custom Laws strictly but passed the Stamp Act in 1765. It required that all the legal documents should bear a Revenue Stamp. It was made clear that the amount so collected would be spent on the defence of the colonies. The colonists protested against this Act tooth and nail. Their contention was that the British Parliament had no right to tax them as the colonies had no representatives in it. They were not against the tax but the right to tax. They raised the slogan "*No taxation without representation.*"

(10) *Imposition of Duties by Townshend* In order to emphasize the right of the British Parliament to tax the colonies Townshend imposed duties on tea, paper, glass, sugar, paints and colours. The colonists boycotted the British goods imported in the colonies and raised a standard of revolt. Riots took place at various places. Three persons died on account of firing by the army at Boston. This incident is known as "*Boston Massacre*". It flamed the situation which had already been worsened.

(11) *Boston Tea Party* Lord North became the Prime Minister of England in 1770 A.D. He tried to solve the problem of the colonies and pacify the colonists. He abolished all the duties but maintained a nominal duty on tea simply to assert the right to tax. In 1773 A.D. when a cargo of tea arrived at the Boston Port from India a few colonists boarded the ship in the guise of porters and threw 340 chests of tea into the sea. This incident is known as the '*Boston Tea Party*'. The British Government regarded it as an open defiance of its authority. It passed the Boston Port Act by which the Port of Boston was closed. By the Massachusetts Government Act the charter of self-government of that colony was also cancelled.

(12) *Philadelphia Congress, 1774 A.D.* The representatives of all the colonies, except Georgia, met at Philadelphia on September 5, 1774 A.D. These representatives drew up a Declaration

of Rights and asserted that the British Parliament had no right to tax the colonies without their consent. They sought just rights and liberties from the mother country. They condemned the laws passed by the British Government and sent a petition to it, which is known as the "Olive Branch Petition". In this petition, it was demanded that the 13 Acts passed by the British Parliament, since 1765 should be repealed. The British Government, however, refused to repeal these acts. At this the colonists declared a war against England in 1775 A.D.

SECTION 2—EVENTS OF THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

The war that the American colonists fought against England from 1775 to 1783 A.D. is known in history as the American War of Independence. Its main events are as follows :—

(1) *War of Lexington* Clashes took place between the two parties at Lexington and Concord in 1775 A.D. The English officers inflicted heavy punishments on two leaders of the colonists at Lexington. The Americans fired at the soldiers who were carrying arms from Concord to Boston. These incidents precipitated the matters and the war became inevitable.

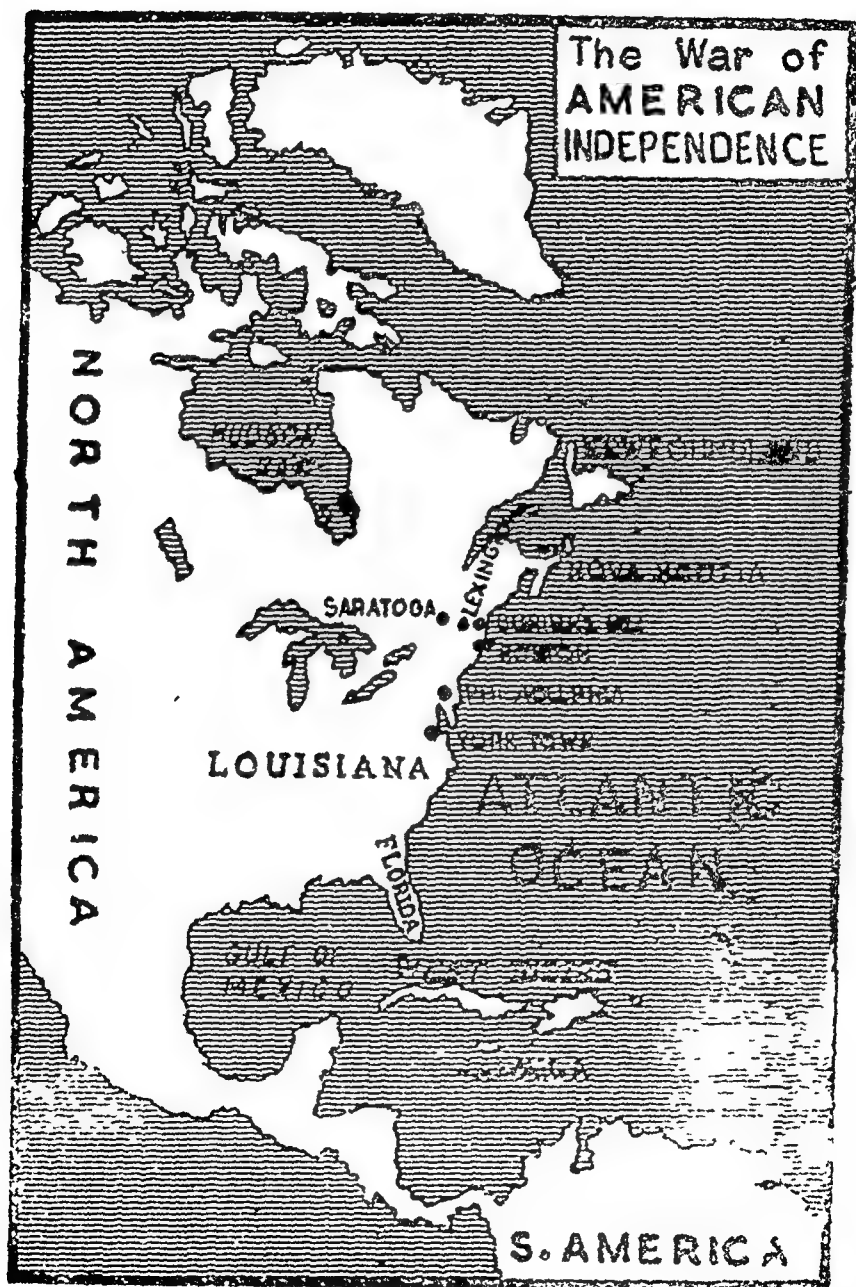
(2) *War of Bunker's Hill, 1775 A.D.* The colonists were defeated at the early stage of the war. The English army succeeded in conquering Bunker Hill after a hard struggle and forced the colonists to vacate Boston.

(3) *Victory over Boston, 1776 A.D.* The colonist decided to offer the command of their armies to George Washington who was the representative of Virginia. He was an able general and had fought successfully against France during the Seven Years' War. Washington had to face many difficulties in the beginning. The colonial forces were untrained and ill-equipped and were suffering from hunger and cold. He organised his troops and kept them in good humour. He defeated the English General Howe and forced him to flee from Boston in 1776 A.D.

(4) *Declaration of Independence, 1776 A.D.* In 1776 A.D. the colonists met in Philadelphia. They drew up the Declaration of Independence which was adopted on July 4, 1776. It declared, "These united colonies are and of right ought to be free and independent states". This declaration thus laid the foundation of United States of America.

(5) *War of Brooklyne and Saratoga.* After his defeat at Boston Howe gathered his forces again. He chased Washington and defeated his army at Brooklyne. This defeat did not dishearten Washington and his forces. He marched forward and inflicted a crushing defeat on the English General Burgoyne at Saratoga.

(6) *Foreign Help.* At this stage many European countries such as France, Spain and Holland came to the help of the colonists. France recognized the independence of the American colonies and declared a war against England because she wanted to avenge her defeat in the Seven Years' War. Spain joined France because she wanted to recover the territories she lost in the Seven Years' War.



Holland also joined them because she considered England her commercial rival. Russia, Denmark and Sweden formed an 'Armed Neutrality' against England.

(7) *Siege of Gibraltar, 1779 A.D.* The combined forces of Spain and France besieged Gibraltar in 1779 A.D. The English General Elliot defended it successfully until 1782 A.D. The siege had to be lifted as the English put up stiff resistance. But it facilitated the work of George Washington.

(8) *Victory of Yorktown, 1781 A.D.* The English General Lord Cornwallis proceeded towards the southern colonies after the English defeat at Saratoga. He reached Yorktown in the hope of getting the help of the British Navy. But he failed to get this help as the sea-route had been well blocked by the French fleet. In the meanwhile George Washington reached Yorktown and Cornwallis was forced to surrender in 1781 A.D. When the news of the surrender of Cornwallis reached London, Lord North exclaimed, "O God! It is all over, it is all over."

(9) *Treaty of Versailles, 1783.* The surrender of Lord Cornwallis brought about the fall of the Ministry of Lord North. George III was determined to continue the war and it was pushed on vigorously during 1782 and 1783 A.D. The power now came into the hands of the Whig party. The economic condition of England was very miserable and her national debt had increased. She had lost much of her power and prestige. Ultimately, England concluded the Treaty of Versailles with the colonists and war came to an end in 1783 A.D. Its main provisions were as under :—

(i) England recognized the independence of the colonies and the new state known as the United States of America came into existence.

(ii) England retained Canada, Nova Scotia and New Foundland.

(iii) Spain got Minorca and Florida.

(iv) France got St. Lucia, Tobago and Senegal.

SECTION 3—SIGNIFICANCE AND EFFECTS OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION

The American Revolution was a great landmark in the history of the world. It produced many important and significant results :—

1. **Effects on America.** (1) *Emergence of U.S.A.* Thirteen colonies became free from the British yoke. England recognized their independence. It gave birth to a new state, known as the United States of America, which is one of the richest and most

powerful countries of the world today In the words of Pt. Nehru, *"The Americans which became free then, have grown today into the most powerful, the richest and industrially the most advanced nation in the world."*

(2) *Written Constitution* After independence a Constitutional Convention was held at Philadelphia. It framed a new constitution for America. It proved a successful political experiment. Many countries of the world followed the American example later on and came to have written constitutions.

(3) *Powerful Federal Government.* The thirteen colonies united together to form a federation. It was the first federal Republic in the world and the creation of a powerful federal government was a new and novel political experiment. The thirteen units recognized a central authority for common interests but they gained considerable local independence. Many modern democratic states, including India, had imitated U.S.A. and adopted federal constitutions.

(4) *Establishment of democracy* The American Federal Republic was based on democracy and the principles of liberty, equality and fraternity. It recognized that the sovereignty resides in the people. It was *"the government of the people, by the people, for the people"*. It gave birth to the idea of equality before law and emphasized the fact that the people organize the government to safeguard their rights. The Declaration of Independence laid great stress on the basic principle of democracy, *"that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their creator with inalienable rights; that among these are life and liberty and the pursuit of happiness that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed."*

(5) *Encouragement to Nationalism.* The American Revolution encouraged the spirit of nationalism and patriotism in America as well as abroad. It recognized the rights of the suppressed and oppressed people to revolt against their autocratic tyrannical rulers and regain their freedom. In this connection Prof Hayes writes, *"The American Revolution was a fuller expression of the principles of the English Revolution of the 17th century. It greatly strengthened the idea of the 'right of revolution, the right of a people to overturn an oppressive government.'" Many European countries and in the 20th century many countries of Asia and Africa followed the example of America and freed themselves from the bondage of slavery*

2 Effects on England. The American Revolution affected England in many ways —

(1) *Commercial Loss* The Thirteen Colonies served as a market for the English goods and provided raw material for their factories. The loss of these colonies proved harmful for the commercial and industrial development of England.

(2) *Loss of Prestige and Power* The defeat of the English at the hands of the colonists and the loss of Minorca, Florida and other

possessions gave a blow to the prestige, power and glory of England. It increased their national debt and led to financial instability.

(3) *Change in the Colonial Policy.* The American Revolution clearly showed the shallowness of the old colonial policy which was based on political and economic exploitation and thus it paved the way for the new colonial policy based on liberalism. The English were now forced to grant more responsible government to their colonies in other countries so that she might not lose them. All this change led to the creation of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

(4) *End of the Personal Rule of George III.* The English thought that the unwise and tactless policy of George III and his ministers was much responsible for the loss of 13 colonies in America, consequently the British Parliament passed a resolution that the power of the king had increased and was increasing and so it must be checked. Lord North resigned and the personal rule of George III came to an end. The Party System and Cabinet System of Government was again set-up in England and in this way the English men were able to regain their constitutional liberties once again.

3. Effects on France. The American Revolution had some important effects on France also.

(1) *Regaining of the Lost Prestige* France regained her prestige which was lost during the Seven Years' War. She also regained her colonies in India, West Indies and Senegal.

(2) *The French Revolution.* It is true that France avenged her old defeat but she ruined herself financially and her fleet was also smashed. It hastened the French Revolution. The French armies had helped the colonists in this war. They thought that if they would help others to win freedom there was no reason why they would not free themselves from the despotic rule of their own ruler Louis XVI. They were very much impressed by the principles of Equality, Liberty and Fraternity of the American Revolution. When they came back they preached the same ideas in France. These ideas revolutionized the minds of the people of France and brought the French Revolution nearer.

4. Effects on Ireland. Ireland was under the domination of England. The people of Ireland hated the oppressive rule of the English. The defeat of the English in America encouraged them. They took advantage of the situation and launched a struggle for the legislative independence of their own country and ultimately they succeeded in getting the same.

5. Effects on Spain. Spain got back Minorca and Florida which they had lost to England during the Seven Years' War. At the same time her prestige and power was greatly increased.

SECTION 4—CAUSES OF THE FAILURE OF ENGLAND

The following factors were responsible for the defeat of England in this war :—

(1) *Distance from England.* The American colonies were situated at a distance of about 3,000 miles from England. It was difficult to send reinforcements from England to America for want of proper and adequate means of communication. Lord Cornwallis would have not surrendered at Yorktown if he had received timely help from England.

(2) *The English under-estimated the Strength of the Colonists.* The British Government under-estimated the strength of the colonists. It was regarded as an ordinary movement which could be crushed easily. In the beginning General Gage remarked, "*Four regiments are enough to conquer the whole of America*". So the English did not prepare themselves fully to face this revolution and lost in the long run.

(3) *Incompetent Generals.* The English Generals like Howe and Burgoyne were not as capable as George Washington. There was no co-operation among them and there was no co-ordination among them. On the other hand, the commander of the colonial forces, i.e., George Washington, was an able, competent, courageous and steadfast general. He fought bravely under heavy odds and gained victory at last.

(4) *Incompetence of the English in War-arrangements.* War-arrangements of the English were faulty and inadequate. War operations were in the hands of incompetent persons like Lord Germaine. They did not adopt the policy of Pitt in blocking France and to prevent her from sending reinforcement to Americans. There was no co-ordination between the army and navy. Various generals fighting at different fronts pursued their own line of action forced by their own whims. The surrender at Saratoga might have been avoided if General Howe had gone to the help of General Burgoyne.

(5) *Unfamiliarity with the Country.* The theatre of the war was very vast and the land was covered with dense forests. The English soldiers were not acquainted with the geographical conditions of America. There were no proper means of transport and communication. The English soldiers lost their way in the jungles and suffered heavy losses. On the other hand the colonists were familiar with every nook and corner of the land and inflicted crushing defeat on the English.

(6) *Too much Interference of George III and his Ministers.* George III and his ministers interfered too much in the conduct of the war. They were not only incompetent and tactless but also torn by mutual jealousies and rivalries. Their orders were generally

contradictory and thus they were a great obstacle in the way of making proper arrangements for the war. The English generals fighting in America had no say in drawing war plan and conducting it according to the situation. It has been rightly remarked, "*The failure of the English was due not to the king's enemies but the king's friends*".

(7) *Help of other Countries to the Americans.* France declared war against England on behalf of the colonies in 1778 A.D. and they rendered a great material and military help to them. Spain also joined them in 1779 A.D. This very fact changed the course of the war altogether. The presence of the French fleet in the Atlantic Ocean forced Lord Cornwallis to surrender at Yorktown as he could not receive reinforcements from England in time. Russia, Sweden and Denmark also helped the colonists by organizing armed neutrality against England.

(8) *High Ideals of the Colonists.* The colonists were inspired by high ideals of political and economic freedom. They were engaged in life and death struggle and were ready to sacrifice everything for the sake of their independence. They preferred death to defeat. It was difficult for the English and German soldiers to face a nation in arms.

(9) *Obstinacy of George III.* George III was very obstinate. He lacked both tact and wisdom. He never tried to understand the feelings, aspirations and problems of the colonists. He only cared to prolong his personal rule which was highly unpopular in England. His faulty ideals and wrong policies resulted in the defeat of the English in this war.

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

The English had established 13 colonies in America. She exploited them politically and economically. As a result these colonies revolted in 1775 A.D. and won freedom in 1783 A.D.

1. Causes of the American Revolution. (1) Defective system of administration in colonies, (2) Economic Exploitation; (3) Stationing of Army; (4) Self-reliance and Love of Liberty; (5) Lack of Love and Loyalty; (6) Religious and Temperamental differences; (7) Self-sufficiency of the Colonists; (8) No danger of the French Attack; (9) Help from France. (10) The Stamp Act; (11) Imposition of duties by Townshend; (12) Boston Tea Party; (13) Philadelphia Congress in 1774 A.D.

2. Events of the Revolution. (1) War of Lexington in 1775 A.D., (2) War of Bunker Hill, 1775 A.D., (3) Victory over Boston, 1776 A.D., (4) Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776 A.D.; (5) War of Brooklyn and Saratoga, (6) Help of foreign countries like France, Spain and Holland, (7) Siege of Gibraltar, 1779-1782 A.D., (8) Victory at Yorktown and Surrender of Lord Cornwallis in 1781 A.D., (9) Treaty of Versailles in 1783 A.D. and end of the War of American Independence.

3. Significance and Effects of the American Revolution.
(1) Effects on America—Birth of the new state of United States of

America ; (2) Written Constitution ; (3) Powerful Federal Government ; (4) Establishment of Democracy ; (5) Encouragement to Nationalism.

2. Effects on England—Commercial Loss ; Loss of Prestige and Power ; Change in the Colonial Policy ; End of the Personal Rule of George III.

3 Effects on France—Regaining of lost Prestige , It hastened the French Revolution

4. Effects on Ireland—Regained Legislative Independence.

5. Spain got Minorca and Florida and increased her power and prestige

4. **Causes of the Failure of England.** (1) Distance from England ; (2) The English under estimated the strength of the colonists ; (3) Incompetent Generals ; (4) Incompetence of the English in War-arrangements . (5) Unfamiliarity with the country ; (6) Too much interference of George III and his Ministers ; (7) Help of other countries to the Americans , (8) High ideals of the colonists (9) Obstinacy of George III.

University and other Important Questions

- 1 Discuss the causes and results of the War of American Independence.
(A.I. Hr. Sec. 1967, 69 ; B U. 1965, 70)
- 2 Give a brief account of the War of American Independence with special reference to its effects
(Multi-purpose Hr Sec. 1968)
3. Explain the significance of the American War of Independence, emphasizing the causes and permanent results.
(B U. 1958)
4. Write Short Notes on the following —
 (1) American War of Independence. (B U. 1962)
 (2) Navigation Acts
 (3) Boston Tea Party.
 (4) Treaty of Versailles.
 (5) Congress of Philadelphia
 (6) Washington as a General.
 (7) Significance of the American Revolution.
5. Fill in the blanks :—
 (1) The English had colonies in America before 1783 A.D.
 (2) Stamp Act was passed in 1765 A.D.
 (3) The event of Boston Tea Party took place in 1773 A.D.
 (4) The British surrendered at Yorktown in 1781 A.D.
- 6 Name the following —
 (1) General who was defeated at Saratoga.
 (2) General who surrendered at Yorktown.
 (3) General of the American forces.
 (4) King who ruled England at the time of the American Revolution.
 (5) Prime Minister who was responsible for the event of Boston Tea Party.
7. Why are the following dates important in the World History —
 1765, 1775, 1776, 1781 and 1783 A.D.

The French Revolution and Napoleon

The French Revolution is regarded as a great land-mark not only in the History of France but also of Europe. Ramsay Muir calls it a 'World Revolution'. It was as much a war of bayonets as that of ideas. It gave to humanity the ideas of Liberty, Equality and Fraternity. It shook the old traditions and institutions.

There was despotic rule in France in the 18th century. The nobles and the clergy enjoyed special privileges. They led a happy life but the general public was very unhappy. The result was the outbreak of a revolution in France in 1789 A.D. Arbitrary rule was replaced by a democratic form of government. It gave birth to new political ideas and resulted in the reconstruction of society. The king, the queen and thousands of their followers, nobles and clergymen were murdered. It created a great stir in Europe. Thousands of towns were destroyed and lacs of persons were killed. This movement, which started in France in 1789 A.D. is known as the French Revolution.

SECTION 1—CAUSES OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

There were many causes responsible for the French Revolution. Some of them are as follows :—

1. Political Causes :—

(1) *Arbitrary Rule of Louis XVI.* The government of France was a highly centralized monarchy. Louis XVI was an arbitrary ruler of France. He believed in the Theory of Divine Rights of the King. He enjoyed unlimited powers and rights. His will was law. He could appoint or dismiss any person. He could impose any tax, he liked. He could inflict any punishment and throw anybody into prison without any trial. He used his powers for his own selfish ends and did not do anything for the welfare of the people. He used to say, "*The sovereign power is rested in my person, the legislative power exists in myself alone. My people are one only with me. national rights and national interests are necessarily combined with my own and only rest in my hands*"

(2) *Inefficient Administration* The administration in France was disorganised, inefficient and unsatisfactory. The high posts were auctioned and bought by the nobles and aristocrats. The men in authority were quite ignorant of their rights and duties. They had no knowledge of the sufferings of the people. There were Governors in the provinces but they had no Councils to help them. The administration lacked co ordination. It had passed into the hands of certain inefficient and selfish people who never cared for the welfare of the people. People were tired of such a rotten system of administration and wanted to put an end to it.

(3) *Mal-administration of Justice.* There was also a great confusion in the legal system of the country. There were no uniform laws for the whole country. Different laws were in force in different parts of the country. It is said that there were about 400 different systems of law prevailing in France. The laws were written in Latin and the people could not even understand them. The laws were cruel and unjust and the punishments were very severe. The people did not get fair and equal-handed justice. Any body could be imprisoned without judicial trial. There were royal courts, military courts and church courts etc and their jurisdiction was not clearly defined.

(4) *Weak and Incapable Monarchy* The successors of Louis XIV were not only arbitrary rulers but they also lacked ability and experience. They were weak and powerless. Louis XIV advised his son not to squander the wealth of the country in frivolities and wars but his advice fell on deaf ears. Louis XV proved a coward, foolish and spend-thrift. He increased the sufferings of the people by his luxurious life and war-like policy. France lost her colonies in America due to his foolishness and his defeat in the Seven Years' War lowered the international prestige and glory of France. Dr G. P. Gooch says, "*The Legacy of Louis XV to his countrymen was an ill-governed, discontented and frustrated France. Viewed from distance, the ancient regime was as solid as Bastille, but its walls were crumbling for lack of repairs and the foundation showed the signs of giving way.*"

Like his father Louis XVI was also an arbitrary, corrupt, immoral, weak, stupid and coward ruler. He was an easy going and pleasure-loving man. He lacked foresight and was unable to manage the affairs of the state. He said, "*It seems as if universe is falling on me. God, what a burden is mine and they have taught me nothing.*"

He took part in the American War of Independence and brought the country on the brink of bankruptcy. As such chaos and anarchy prevailed everywhere in France. His wife, Queen Marie Antionette, though beautiful and gracious, was very proud, wilful and an impatient lady. She lacked wisdom and power of judgement. She could not understand the spirit of the times. She dominated her husband and unduly interfered in the affairs of the state and

government. Such a behaviour on the part of the king and his queen brought the French Revolution quite nearer.

(5) *Expensive Monarchy* The Kings of France were pleasure-loving and extravagant. They regarded the national income as their personal income. The Palace at Versailles had been built by Louis XIV at a cost of 10 crores of rupees. The revenue of the state was squandered on wars and on the luxurious life of the kings, queen and their courtiers. Such a huge expenditure resulted in the bankruptcy of France and the national debt increased beyond limits. Able ministers like Turgot and Necker, however, took steps to improve the finances of the state but they were dismissed. **Hazen** has rightly said, '*At that time, instead of matching expenditure according to the income, the income was, devised with a view to the expenditure of the crown*'

(6) *Absence of any Representative Body* There was no representative body in France like the British Parliament to make laws, to raise taxes and to express the public opinion. In the absence of such a body the king could not judge the temper and views of the people properly. There was, no doubt, an institution called the Estates General but it had not been summoned since 1614 A.D.

2. Social Causes—

The French Revolution was as much due to the political causes as it was due to the social causes. There was social inequality in France. The society in France consisted of three classes—the noble, the clergy and the commons. The first two classes enjoyed special privileges and led a happy life. They formed 10% of the whole population but owned 40% of the national wealth. They paid no taxes. The third class was the unprivileged class. The people belonging to this class were being crushed under the heavy burden of taxation and as such they led a miserable life.

(1) *The Clergy*. The church formed a state within the state. It had great influence on the people. One fifth of the land was the property of the church. It derived large income from tithes, religious courts, gifts etc. The higher clergy held high offices in the church but they did not care a bit for their spiritual duties. They led a luxurious life and were corrupt and immoral. The lower clergy performed spiritual duties but they were poorly paid. They led a wretched life and were quite discontented. They hated the higher clergy for their enormous wealth and gay life. So they also joined the revolutionaries.

(2) *The Nobles* The nobles also enjoyed special rights and privileges. They had large estates and castles. They owned $\frac{1}{3}$ th of the land of France but they were free from all the taxes. They held all the important posts in the army and the church. They were not required to perform any service to the state. They could levy taxes on the peasants living on their estates and enjoyed hunting,

shooting and fishing rights. Their cattle and pets grazed and spoiled the crops but the peasants could not lodge any complaint against them.

(3) *The Commons* The unprivileged class was comprised of the peasants in villages, workers in cities and the people belonging to middle class such as government servants, lawyers, teachers, doctors, writers, artists, traders and industrialists. The middle class had both the wealth and the intellect. It were they, who later on proved to be the leaders of the Revolution.

The condition of the workers and peasants was a deplorable one. They had to pay various taxes. The labourers had to work



A French Cartoon of 1789 portrays the Common Man in Chains, carrying the Nobles and the Clergy on his back

hard but they earned very little. The peasants were also not well off. They had to pay various taxes to the government, to the nobles and to the church. They were subjected to forced labour. They had to work free on the land of the nobles three days a week. Their crops were trampled by the hunting parties of the nobles. About 81% of their income went to the state, to the nobles and to the church. They could hardly keep their body and soul together with the rest of 19% of their income. Sometimes, they had even to live on grass and roots and thousands of them died of starvation. Thus forced by circumstances the commons girded up their loins to eradicate such a corrupt rule. **Napoleon** used to say, "*The French Revolution was a general mass movement of the nation against the privileged classes.*"

3 **Economic Causes.** The economic condition of France towards the end of the 18th century was a very critical one. This economic factor greatly hastened the Revolution.

(1) *Heavy National Debt.* The French government was heavily under debt. The state treasury was quite empty. A large portion of the national income used to be spent by the king and his courtiers in leading a luxurious life. Louis XIV took part in many wars and the result was that the national debt increased beyond limit. Much against the wishes of his father Louis XV took part in the War of Austrian Succession and Seven Years' War. But such a policy brought the country on the brink of bankruptcy. Half of the national income was spent in paying the interest on national debt. Louis XVI squandered the national wealth on mal administration on courtiers and in taking part in the War of American Independence. The financial crisis deepened further. Turgot and Necker tried to improve the financial condition of France by introducing certain reforms but the king opposed them as he was at that time under the influence of his queen and courtiers and consequently, he dismissed them.

The national debt rose to eight crore dollars. Louis XVI wanted to tax the privileged class also but he failed to do so due to vested interests. As such the financial condition of France went from bad to worse and it created great discontentment among the people.

(2) *Defective System of Taxation.* The system of taxation in France was highly defective. The nobles and the higher clergy owned 40 per cent of the national wealth but they did not pay a single penny to the state treasury and the burden of taxation



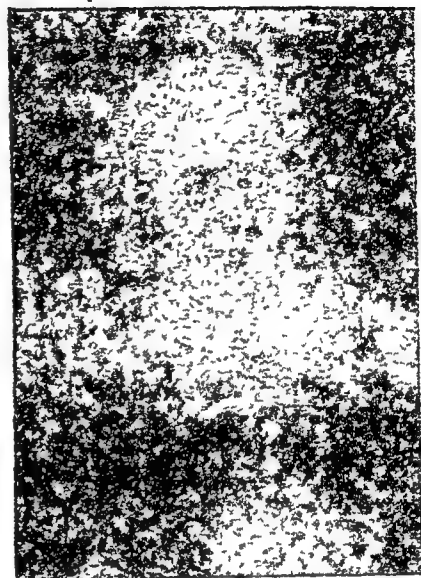
Among the many taxes levied in France was the Head-Tax paid by all the People.

fell on the common people. The rich, who could support the state, paid the least, while the poor were being crushed under the heavy weight of taxation. The system of the collection of taxes was also full of defects. The taxes were not collected by the government officials. The government sold the right of tax-collection to private

individuals called '*Farmers*'. These '*Farmers*' extracted as much as possible from the people and committed unlimited atrocities on them. Thus the defective system of tax-collection and its oppressiveness proved one of the most important causes of the Revolution.

4 **Psychological Causes** Certain psychological causes also led to the French Revolution. They are as follows :—

(1) **French Philosophers** France had degenerated politically, socially and economically. The French philosophers awakened the people from their deep slumber. They attacked the church, the crown and the old traditions. They exposed the oppression of the arbitrary rulers, attacked the special privileges of the nobles and of the clergy. They revolutionized the minds of the people and encouraged them to revolt against the corrupt regime and social inequality.



Rousseau

(i) **Montesquieu**. He was a famous lawyer and a judge. He was an independent writer and thinker. He was greatly impressed by the English Constitution, their free institutions and their social set-up. He believed in the constitutional monarchy and supremacy of the law. He was the strong supporter of individual liberty. He put his political theories in his book entitled '*Spirit of Laws*'. He criticized the ancient administrative system and shook its very roots. He believed in the theory of the separation of powers. He advocated that the legislative, executive and judicial powers of the state must be separated from one another. If any two powers are combined together, there will be a tyrannical rule and the people will not be able to enjoy any individual liberty.

(ii) **Voltaire**. Voltaire was another great philosopher and intellectual giant of this age. He was a versatile writer. He attacked the church and the crown. He exposed the tyranny of arbitrary kings, abuses of the church and social inequalities. He was in favour of individual liberty and lashed at traditions, beliefs and religious fanaticism. He used to say, "*Worship God and be a good man*". His writings awakened the people of France.

(iii) **Rousseau**. He was the most eminent writer and philosopher of that time. His political ideas are found in his famous book '*Social Contract*'. He used to say, "*Man is born free yet every where he is in chains*." He preached democratic ideas and

was in favour of the sovereignty of the people. He said, "*The people are the real sovereign and the king rules only by their consent*" He wanted to eradicate old social and political institutions and believed in new social set-up based on equality and justice. His revolutionary ideas paved the way for the revolution and encouraged the people to revolt against the established monarchy. Even Napoleon had all praise for him. According to him, "*But for Rousseau there would have been no French Revolution.*"

(iv) *Diderot* Diderot was a renowned writer, philosopher and preacher of the 18th century. He wrote his famous book '*Encyclopaedia*' in 1792 A.D. In this voluminous work he criticized the despotic rule, the special privileges of the high order, unjust laws, social inequalities and the miserable life of the lower class. He was the supporter of the people's Republic, equality and efficient administration.

In short, the above philosophers roused the people from their deep slumber and instilled in them feelings of liberty, equality and fraternity. It created revolutionary spirit and provoked them to root out social inequalities and set-up a constitutional form of government. In the words of Prof. Mukerjee, "*Their writings exposed the evils of old regime and aroused the passion of the people by instilling into them the new ideas and doctrines and prepared their minds for a revolutionary change.*"

(2) *Influence of the American War of Independence.* In order to avenge their defeat in the Seven Years' War, France helped the people of the American colonies against England. It was much because of their help that the Americans got freedom from England. But these French soldiers, who helped the Americans to win their freedom were themselves greatly influenced by the ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity of the colonists and when they came to their own country they preached these ideas among the people of their own country and prepared them for the revolution. They brought home to the people of France that it was quite difficult to put an end to despotic rule and privileges of the high order without adopting the revolutionary methods. In this connection Webster says, "*The War of American Independence became an eye opener to the nations of Europe and in particular gave leaders to the French Revolution.*"

5 **Immediate Cause.** The weak finances of France was the immediate cause of the Revolution. Luxurious life of the king and his courtiers and the costly wars resulted in financial crisis. The national debt increased at a rapid speed and France was on the verge of bankruptcy. Thus forced by circumstances Louis XVI called the Council of the eminent French citizens and placed before them the resolution of taxing the privileged class. Most of the members of the Council were against this proposal and decided that only the Estates General could impose new taxes. Financial crisis compelled the king to summon the Estates General in

1789 A.D., which had not met since 1614 A.D. It was an assembly of the three Estates, the nobles, the clergy and the commoners. The summoning of the Estates General brought about the Revolution and commoners, whose strength in the newly constituted Estate General was great, became the torch-bearers of the Revolution

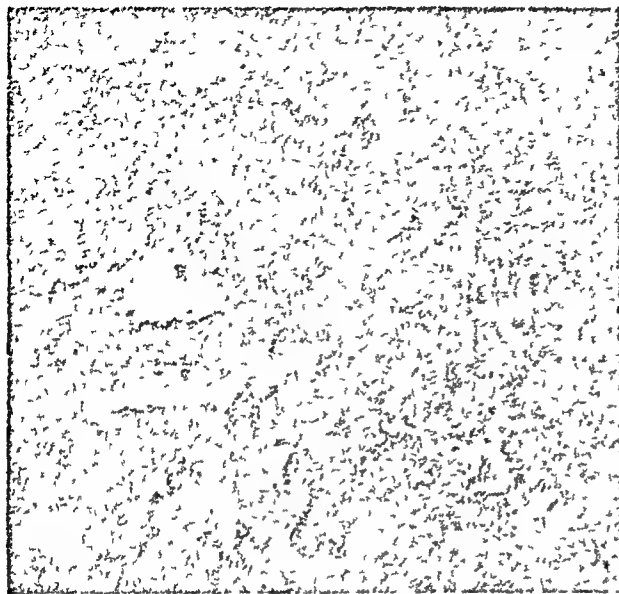
SECTION 2—COURSE OF THE REVOLUTION

1. **Meeting of the Estates General.** The king summoned the Estates General on May 5, 1789 A.D. after a lapse of 175 years. It was composed of the representatives of three orders, the clergy, the nobles and the commons. Each order met separately and its decision was taken as one joint vote. The result was that the clergy and the nobles had the upper hand and decided all the matters as they liked. At the time of its meeting in 1789 A.D. the Estates General consisted of 1200 delegates; of these, the commons had 600 representatives. They demanded that the three orders were to meet as a single chamber in which each individual should have a vote. The clergy and the nobles resisted this demand. The Third Estate took a momentous decision and declared itself to be the National Assembly on June 17, 1789 A.D. By this they claimed the right to speak and act for the whole nation. This step was revolutionary in its very nature.

2. **Tennis-Court Oath.** Under the undue influence and pressure of the high order, the king tried to oppose the proceedings of the Third Estate and posted German and Swiss soldiers in Paris and Versailles to suppress them. He deposed Necker and later on exiled him. On June 20, 1789 the members of the Third Estate tried to assemble in their chamber but they were checked by the king's soldiers. They then assembled in the neighbouring Tennis-Court to hold their session. They took an oath there, which is known as the 'Tennis-Court Oath'. They took an oath not to separate till the constitution of the kingdom is prepared.

3. **The Royal Session, June 23, 1789 A.D.** The Royal Session was, however, held on June 23, 1789 A.D. In this session the king declared the acts of Third Estate as illegal and ordered that meeting of the Three Estates should be held separately as usual. Consequently, the master of the ceremonies ordered the members of the Third Estate to clear the chamber. At this one of their representatives named Mirabeau said, *"Go and tell your master that we are here by the will of the people and that we shall not go except at the point of bayonet."* Forced by circumstances the king ordered the Three Estates to meet together as the National Assembly. It was the first victory of the commoners.

4. **Fall of Bastille.** Under the force of circumstances, the king recognized the National Assembly but he wanted to crush it

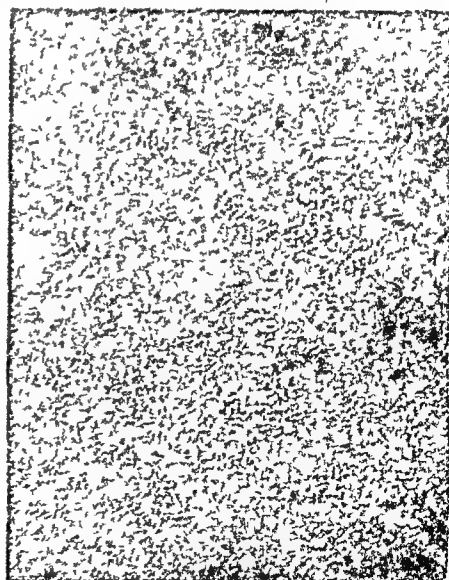


July 14, a day of Rebellion in France

hailed as a great victory of liberty.

The peasants also rose against the feudal lords. They took to loot and arson. They began to destroy their forts. Many feudal lords and nobles were put to death. Many of them fled to foreign lands to save their lives on 5th October, 1789 A.D. A large number of suffering women marched towards Versailles raising the slogan, "*Bread, Bread*". This incident is known as "*Bread March*". They besieged the Palace of Versailles and forced the king and the queen to accompany them to Paris. They said, "*We have baker and the baker's wife and the little cook boy, now we shall have bread*". The king now began to live in the Palace of Juileries in Paris. The members of the National Assembly also moved to Paris. The fall of Bastille gave a severe blow to the king's despotic powers and the social inequalities. It marked the end of royal despotism in France. It completed the transfer of political authority to the national legislature and paved the way for the fall of feudalism.

by force. He posted foreign troops for the protection of Paris and Versailles and dismissed his popular Minister Necker. But this action of Louis XVI led to chaos and anarchy and infuriated the people. The mob assembled in Paris and stormed the Bastille Jail on July 14, 1789 A.D. This Jail was a symbol of king's despotism and tyranny. The mob razed the fort-like-Jail to the ground and freed the prisoners. The fall of Bastille was in a way, the fall of the monarchy. It was



Louis XIV in the hands of
a Mob

5 Work of the National Assembly (1789—1791 A.D.)

The National Assembly worked from 1789 to 1791 A.D. and did commendable works

(1) *Abolition of the Rights of the Privileged Class* On 4th August, 1789 A.D. the National Assembly put an end to the rights of the privileged class and abolished feudalism and serfdom. The nobles were deprived of their rights of hunting, fishing and collecting taxes. Forced labour was forbidden. Serfs were set free and were exempted from all taxes. The burden of taxation was to be borne by all according to their income. Rates of land-tax were fixed by the National Assembly. Every citizen was given the right to hold any civil or military post without any distinction.

Church was nationalised. Its property was confiscated. The number of clergy was also reduced. The clergy was deprived of its right of realizing tithes. In short all the special privileges were declared as ended and the superiority of the Nobility and the Church was razed to the ground.

(2) *Declaration of the Rights of Man.* The Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen was the second important work of the National Assembly. It declared many rights of man and the citizen—
 (i) All men are born free and have equal rights, (ii) All persons are equal in the eyes of law, (iii) All persons have the liberty to do, whatever, they like provided they do not injure other people, (iv) All persons have the right to express their views; (v) Law is the expression of the will of the people, (vi) No one shall be accused, arrested or penalised till the charges against him are proved; (vii) All the citizens will enjoy religious freedom, (ix) All officials of the state are responsible to the people, (x) The people can control the finances of the state through their representatives, etc.

This declaration is a great land-mark not only in the History of France but also of the world. According to Dr. J.E. Swain, "The entire world acclaimed it as a victory for democracy." It swept away the principles of the old regime and laid the foundation of the new political and social order and the ideals of liberty, equality and fraternity.

(3) *Making of the New Constitution, 1791 A.D.* The National Assembly then assumed the name of the Constituent Assembly and framed a new constitution for France in 1791 A.D. It adopted a constitutional or limited monarchy. The king was still the head of executive but his rights and powers were limited and he became the constitutional head of the state. The king had the right to appoint and dismiss his ministers but they were not to sit in the Legislative Assembly. He was given power of suspensive veto by which he could only postpone temporarily the execution of the Acts of the legislature.

The Legislative powers were vested in the Legislative Assembly consisting of 745 members to be chosen by indirect election for 2 years.

All judges were to be elected and their term varied from 2 to 4 years. The Jury system was introduced in criminal cases. The penal code did not remain so severe now.

The *Administrative System* was reorganised and uniform system was set-up all over the country. The administrative machinery was divided in to 83 departments. Many financial reforms were introduced to tackle the economic and financial problems. The administration of the church was completely reorganised by the '*Civil Constitution of the Clergy*.'

After completing the work of framing the new constitution, the National Assembly dissolved itself on September 30, 1791 A.D. and *debarred its members from taking part in Legislative Assembly*.

6. **King's Attempt to Flee.** Mirabeau died on April 2, 1791 A.D. He was the most prominent leader of the National Assembly. He belonged to the high order and was the supporter of the monarchy. After his death the king felt helpless and thought of fleeing to Germany. He tried to flee away from France with his queen and children on June 20, 1791 A.D. but he was caught and brought back to Paris.

7. **The Legislative Assembly, (1791—1792 A.D.)** Election of the members of the Legislative Assembly took place in France according to the Constitution framed by the National Assembly and its first session was held on October 1, 1791 A.D. The Girondists and the Jacobins were the two chief parties in it and both opposed the monarch.

8. **War with Austria, (1792 A.D.)** The revolutionaries of France instigated the people of other countries to revolt against monarchy and set up a republican form of government. They also assured them of their solid help. The King of Austria, Leopold II, brother of Queen Marie Antoinette wanted to check the propagation of revolutionary ideas and help Louis XVI against the revolutionaries. So he declared a war against France on April 20, 1792 A.D. with the help of Prussia and other countries.

9. **The National Convention, (1792—1795 A.D.)** The French army was defeated in Netherlands. The revolutionaries held Louis XVI responsible for it. The mob attacked the king's palace on August 10, 1792 A.D. under the leadership of Danton. The mob captured the palace and looted it mercilessly. They imprisoned the King along with his family. Later on he was suspended and forbidden to perform any administrative functions. The real power came into the hands of the Jacobin Club and its leader Danton, till the session of the National Convention in 1792 A.D.

The National Convention was the third revolutionary Assembly of France and it worked from September 21, 1792 to October 26, 1795 A.D. The French army inflicted a crushing defeat on the enemy on 20th September, 1792 A.D. The National

Convention deposed the king, put an end to monarchy and established Republic in France on September 22, 1792 A.D.

10 **Execution of Louis XVI, 21st January 1793 A.D.** The Girondists did not want to execute the king without trial, they wanted to leave this matter to the people. On the other hand the Jacobins favoured the execution of the king without trial. As the Jacobins had influence in the Convention, the king was charged of treason after a nominal trial and was executed on January 21, 1793 A.D. His last words were, "*Gentlemen, I am innocent of that, of which I am accused. May my blood assure the happiness of France.*" His queen was also hanged on October 16, 1793 A.D.

11. **Reign of Terror in France, 1793-94 A.D.** France was engulfed by dangers from all sides. England, Austria, Prussia, Spain and Holland formed the first coalition against the French Republic. The Jacobins appointed Carnot as War Minister. He was very capable and experienced person. Emergency was declared in France. It was made compulsory for every young man between the age of 18 to 25 to render military service. By this method he raised an army of 7,70,000 soldiers. By his effective plans of campaign and war policy he turned the defeat of France into victory. Carnot was rightly called the '*Organiser of Victory.*'

A Committee of Public Safety was organised to deal with the enemies of the state. The supreme executive authority of the state was vested with it. Carnot and Robespierre were also the members of this committee. It followed the policy of '*Blood and Iron*'. Reign of Terror was let loose in France and it continued for about one year (1793-94). About 5,000 persons were butchered in Paris alone. About 15,000 persons perished in the provinces. The Reign of Terror became intolerable. The Paris mob turned against cruel Robespierre and his followers. Consequently, they were put to death in 1794 A.D. With their execution the '*Reign of Terror*' ended in France and the people heaved a sigh of relief.

12. **Directory, 1795-1799 A.D.** The National Convention framed a new republican constitution for France. According to the new constitution the executive authority of the state was vested in a committee of five Directors. It was known as '*Directory*'. The new constitution was introduced in 1795 A.D. and the Directory worked upto November 19, 1799 A.D. The Directory, however, failed to solve the problems of the country and improve its conditions because the Directors were selfish and inexperienced persons. The Directory became very unpopular because of its inefficiency and corruption. It was torn by mutual jealousies. The administration had become very loose and lives of the people had become very miserable.

13 **The Last-Phase, 1799 to 1815 A.D.** Napoleon overthrew the Directory in 1799 A.D. and established a Consulate in France. The executive power was vested in Three Consuls and one of them acted as the First Consul, Napoleon became the First Consul. He enjoyed unlimited powers and was virtually the dictator of

France. In 1804 A.D. Napoleon, however, became the Emperor of France and he ruled as an emperor from 1804 to 1814 A.D. He was defeated in the Battle of Leipzig in 1814 A.D. and exiled to the Island of Elba. He escaped from the jail and reached France. He ruled France again for a period of 100 days. He was finally defeated in the Battle of Waterloo in 1815 A.D. and imprisoned in the Island of St. Helena. With his imprisonment in 1815 A.D. the French Revolution which began in 1789 A.D. also came to an end.

SECTION 3—EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution produced great effects not only on France but also on the whole of Europe. The famous historian Ramsay Muir has rightly called it, "*The World Revolution*". It was as much a war of ideas as of bayonets. It gave new ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity to the world. It put an end to the old regime and existing social order and laid emphasis on democracy, nationalism and socialism. It paved the way for the reconstruction of France and Europe on a new basis.

1. **Effects on France.** The people of France had to undergo many hardships during the course of the revolution but in the long run it proved a boon for them. The French had suffered a lot due to the despotic and tyrannical rule. The social order was based on inequality. The French Revolution *uprooted the old regime*, put an end to the arbitrary rule in France and paved the way for the establishment of a Republic there. The *special privileges of the high order were abolished* and led to the regeneration of France on the basis of social equality. The declaration of the Rights of Man granted freedom and individual liberty to all without any distinction of class or creed.

Many reforms were introduced in the administration. The higher and important posts in the state were thrown open to talented people. Any body got the right to rise to any position according to his talents and merits. The Napoleonic Code introduced a uniform system of law and made it quite clear and simple. All were equal before the law. All were granted religious freedom. Efforts were made to improve the economic condition by promoting trade and industry. In short, it can be said that Napoleon was an enlightened despot who wielded absolute power but never ignored the welfare of the people. The French Revolution made France stronger and prosperous.

2. **Effects on England.** The French Revolution had a great influence on England. In the beginning the leaders of England welcomed the Revolution as a '*Dawn of New Era*'. Fox once said, "*How much is this, the greatest event that has ever happened in the world, and how much the best*". But the Reign of Terror made Pitt and Burke hostile to the Revolution, while Fox and Paine supported it. In this way the Revolution gave birth to new

political thought in England Burke left the Whig Party and joined Pitt the Younger, with his followers. It led to rift in the Whig Party but at the same time it became more liberal and democratic. In the beginning Pitt was in favour of reforms but seeing the atrocities committed in the name of the Revolution, he followed a policy of suppression to save England from the evil-effects of the Revolution. But with the passage of time the revolutionary concepts of liberty, equality and fraternity influenced the people of England and they started a struggle for their liberty and made great efforts for the introduction of reforms in Parliament. As a result, the First Reform Act was passed in 1832 A.D. The Revolution, however, proved suicidal for the movement for reforms and there was no improvement in the social life of the English. Continuous wars deteriorated the economy of England. British trade and industry also suffered much. There was poverty and unemployment in England. It created a lot of economic distress and discontent in the country. The French Revolution had also great effect on the English Literature. It inspired the young poets of England such as Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, Byron etc. They made the events of the Revolution and the social problems of the period, the subject of their poems. Burke composed a book named 'Reflection on the French Revolution'. 'Rights of Man' was written by Paine. 'Life of Nelson' was also written during this period. All these works went a long way in enriching the English literature.

3. **Effects on Ireland.** The people of Ireland had to suffer economically, politically and socially under the domination of England. The Revolution inspired them to fight for their rights. They revolted against the English rule but in the beginning their revolt was crushed with a heavy hand. The Anglo-Irish Act of 1800 A.D., however, brought about the union of the two countries. The people of Ireland still remained unsatisfied and continued their efforts to regain their lost independence. They succeeded in the long run and the Irish Free State was established in 1922 A.D.

4. **Equality.** Equality was one of the main principles of the Revolution. It implied the equality of all before law and abolition of privileges enjoyed by the upper order in the society. It established political, economic and social equality in the European countries. It led to the abolition of feudalism, serfdom, special rights and privileges and social inequality. The society was reorganised on the principle of equality. All began to be considered equal in the eyes of law and government and were treated equally. Stress was now laid on merit and not on birth and wealth. This is the greatest boon of the French Revolution to the world.

5. **Liberty.** The revolutionary idea of liberty was hailed all over Europe. It implied political, social and religious freedom. The Declaration of the Rights of Man made people understand the importance of personal liberty and rights. Important steps were taken to establish social liberty by abolishing special privileges, feudalism and serfdom. Special efforts were made to ensure political

liberty. The Revolution put an end to the rule of the despotic and autocratic rulers. It smashed the theory of the Divine Rights of the King and led to the establishment of constitutional monarchy everywhere in Europe. It has been rightly remarked, "*France became the cradle of the modern idea of liberty and the idea of liberty became the watchword and character of all the reformers and revolutionaries. Liberty became a universal creed*"

6. **Popular Sovereignty.** The French Revolution emphasized the fact that sovereignty resides in the general public and law should be based on the will of the people. It asserted that the people held the right to run their government through their elected representatives. It laid stress on the fact that the people should rule themselves and that the government should be not only '*for the people*' but also '*by the people*'. Dr. J.E. Swain writes in this connection, "*The idea that the sovereignty comes from the people, from below and not from above, was a fundamental principle that the Revolution put into practice*". The people of Europe and other countries of the world adopted this idea and established democracy in their countries. To quote, Dewey "*The History of the 19th century is one of very gradual but definite advance towards the sovereignty of the people and a great deal of progress which has been made, can be traced directly or indirectly to the influence of the French Revolution.*"

7. **Spirit of Nationalism.** The French Revolution emphasized the principle of nationalism. It infused the spirit of nationalism and patriotism in the people of France and enabled them to abolish despotic and autocratic rule in France. The Napoleonic wars provoked the sentiment of nationalism in Spain, Italy, Prussia, Germany, Austria etc. The soldiers of Napoleon were not only brave warriors but also the preachers of the spirit of the Revolution. According to Dr. J.E. Swain, "*The French Revolution challenged political absolutism and hereditary aristocracy and set a precedent for suppressed people to revolt against their oppressors.*" It was because of the awakening of the spirit of nationalism that Napoleon failed miserably in Spain, Portugal, Prussia, Austria, though his army was very large, strong, well-equipped, disciplined and trained. This feeling of nationalism led to the unification of Italy and Germany. So we see that the spirit of nationalism saw its birth in France and then it burst the boundaries of France and found its way into other countries of Europe. The history of Europe in the 19th century is the story of the triumph of nationalism in Belgium, Italy, Germany and the Balkan Peninsula. The idea of nationalism is the greatest boon of the French Revolution to the world.

8. **Spread of the Idea of Democracy.** The French Revolution shook the very foundation of feudalism and led to the abolition of special privileges of the feudal lords. There was destruction of the Jagir system, serfdom and social inequality and regeneration of society on the basis of equality. So the class distinctions came to an end. All the high posts in the state were thrown open to talent and merit. The Declaration of the Rights of Man granted the rights of

liberty and equality to all. By and by feudalism was abolished in other countries of the Europe also and the French idea of democracy spread in every nook and corner of the Europe and the world.

9. **Education.** As a First Consul Napoleon introduced many reforms in education. He set up a system of national education and opened many schools and colleges. A university was established at Paris. Before the introduction of these reforms the Church was responsible for the education of the people. But now universities were established in London, Berlin and other big cities of Europe on the model of the Paris University. It helped a great deal in promoting education in the European countries.

10 **Fraternity and Social Welfare.** Thousands of people suffered at the hands of the Revolution but ultimately it proved a blessing in disguise for the whole humanity. It helped in the growth of the spirit of fraternity and social welfare. The people spent huge sums and the governments passed many laws for the social welfare of the people. The Revolution inspired the people who were uptill now groaning under hardships. Serfdom was abolished. Significant reforms were carried out for the welfare of the peasants and the workers. Various measures were taken for the improvement of the lot of the persons in jail. Many schools and hospitals were opened for the common masses. The French Revolution spread the ideal of a welfare state and the legislatures all over the world passed various laws for the social welfare.

So we see that the French Revolution was a world event and it profoundly influenced not only France but also the whole world. The revolutionary ideas of '*Equality, Liberty and Fraternity*' had great effect on the revolutionary movements of the 19th century Europe. It shattered all the useless political and social institutions. Despotism came to an end giving way to democracy and the world witnessed the regeneration of human society on the basis of the principles of the Revolution.

SECTION 4—CAREER AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF NEPOLEON BONAPARTE (1769—1821)

1. **Early Career and Rise to Power.** Napoleon was one of the most famous generals of the world and his name goes down not only in the history of France but also in that of the world. He was born when France was confronted with difficulties and problems. He used to say, "*I was born when my country was dying*"

Napoleon was born on 15th August 1769 in Ajaccio the capital of Corsica. His father Charles Bonaparte was a lawyer. His mother Ramolino was a brave and courageous woman. Napoleon was greatly interested in receiving military education and taking part in battles. To quote him, — "*I must become a soldier and when I become a soldier I shall win every battle.*"

he had to fight many battles against the Austrians and the Sardinians. He married Josephine on March 9, 1796 A.D. First of all he defeated the army of Sardinia and captured Nice and Savoy. He defeated the Austrian army and conquered Milan. Napoleon remained in Italy for about a year and defeated Austria in about 26 battles and then he returned to France. At that time Napoleon was at the height of his glory.

The First Coalition against France broke up in 1797 A.D. and England was left alone. The Directory appointed Napoleon, the Commander of the army, meant for the invasion of England. It was difficult to invade England directly, so he planned to *storm Egypt* and deprive England of her empire and commerce. He attacked Egypt in 1798 A.D. and conquered Malta and Alexandria. Later on he was, however, defeated very badly by the English general Lord Nelson in the Battle of Nile. All his plans came to nothing and he secretly slipped to France leaving his troops behind.

The Directory (1795—1799 A.D.) failed to manage the affairs of France and run the administration successfully. Its foreign policy was an utter failure. Its misrule led to chaos and anarchy. He *over-threw the Directory* with the help of *Abbey Sieyes* on November 9, 1799 A.D. New constitution was introduced in France in December, 1799 A.D. and the executive power was vested in the three Consuls. But practically Napoleon, who was the First Consul, enjoyed absolute powers. He was like a dictator of France. While he was in Egypt, England organized the *2nd Coalition* (1798—1800) against France with the help of Austria and Russia. Napoleon alienated the Czar of Russia from the coalition and defeated Amiens in the Battle of Marengo in 1800 A.D. At last the Treaty of Amiens was concluded between the two parties and the war came to an end. As a First Consul (1798—1804 A.D.) he introduced many reforms in various spheres of life and tried to heal the wounds of the Revolution. His reforms and military achievements made his name immortal.

In 1802 A.D. Napoleon was made the First Consul for life and given the right to appoint his successor. He was declared the *Emperor of France in 1804 A.D.* England organised the *Third Coalition* (1805-1812 A.D.) against France with the help of Austria, Russia and Prussia. Lord Nelson defeated him in the naval battle of Trafalgar in 1805 A.D. But Napoleon defeated Austria in the battle of Austerlitz. He also defeated Prussia and Russia, who at once entered into treaties with France. By 1807 A.D. Napoleon had conquered almost the whole of Europe except England.

Napoleon introduced the *Continental System* to hit at the trade of England but he failed in his designs. He carried on the *Peninsular Wars* against Spain and Portugal from 1806 to 1814 A.D. Napoleon invaded *Moscow* in 1812 because she refused to abide by the Continental System. His Moscow campaign, however, proved a complete failure.

England raised the *Fourth Coalition* against France in 1813 A.D. with the co-operation of Austria, Russia and Prussia. Napoleon

was defeated in the *Battle of Leipzig* in 1813 A.D. He was imprisoned and exiled to the Island of Elba. Napoleon escaped and reached France and ruled again for about 100 days. He was completely defeated in the *Battle of Waterloo* in 1814 A.D. He was exiled to St. Helena, where he died in 1821 A.D.

2. Napoleon as a General and Conquerer. Napoleon was a general of outstanding merit. He became the Commander of the French Army and then the Emperor of France by virtue of his extraordinary military genius. He was a successful general; wherever he led his men, he won. He was very brave, bold, courageous and dauntless. About his courage he himself used to say, "*I regard myself as probably the most daring man in war who has ever existed.*" He could infuse new spirit and life in ordinary persons. He chose his generals from the ordinary soldiers and helped them rise to great heights. He was very skilful in the art of warfare. His speeches were very inspiring. He always looked to the comforts of his soldiers who were always ready to make any sacrifice for him. He had a magnetic personality and was the idol of his soldiers. His presence in the battlefield inspired his soldiers to deeds of bravery. He was a great conqueror. He conquered Italy, Holland, Portugal, Sweden and many other countries of Europe. He humbled the powerful countries like Austria, Russia and Prussia. He left no stone unturned to bring England to her knees. By 1810, almost all Europe was under his sway except England. He extended the boundaries of his empire by his victories and made France a powerful nation of Europe. He ranks with Alexander, Caesar and Charlemagne as one of the greatest generals and conquerors of the world.

(1) *Conquest of Toulon, 1793 A.D.* After receiving his military training, Napoleon was appointed as a Sub-Lieutenant in the Royal Artillery of France in 1793 A.D. Toulon, a France port in the south, was then in the hands of the British. It was so strong and so well-protected that it was quite impossible to capture it. Napoleon showed his military skill and ability by capturing it in 1793 A.D. His services were very much appreciated and he was made the General of a Brigade in 1794 A.D. In October, 1795 A.D. he saved the National Convention from the fury of the Paris mob.

(2) *His Campaign in Italy, 1796-97 A.D.* Napoleon was appointed the Commander of the French Army in Italy in 1796 A.D. There he fought against the Austrians and the Sardinians. According to Prof. Fisher, "*The opening of Napoleon's first Italian campaign is justly accounted one of the classic pieces of the military art.*" He had to face many odds in Italy. The plight of the French soldiers was miserable. They were less in number and were ill-equipped. He inspired new life in them by issuing a war bulletin. He did not allow Austria and Sardinia to unite. He fought them separately. First of all he defeated the army of Sardinia and captured Nice and Savoy. Then he turned to the Austrians. He crossed the Bridge of Lodi and took possession of the Austrian artillery. He

defeated the Austrian army at Mantua and conquered Milan. He inflicted a crushing defeat on the Austrians in the battles of Arcola and Rivoli and forced them to sign the Treaty of Campo Formio. By this treaty he expanded the French Empire and gained natural and scientific frontiers for France. This treaty increased the prestige of France. The Italian campaign of Napoleon is perhaps the most brilliant and successful of all the Napoleonic wars. In one year he won 26 battles against Austria. He was honoured by the people of France and his name became the household word in France. His success in Italy resulted in the break-up of the First Coalition against France.

(3) *His Campaign in Egypt 1798 A.D.* The Directory now appointed Napoleon the Commander of the Army to invade England. In the absence of any powerful fleet he found it difficult to attack England directly. He made a plan to invade Egypt to deprive England of her commercial gains in the east and to advance to India to end the British supremacy in that country. He stormed Egypt in 1798 A.D. and conquered Malta and Alexandria. The English naval commander Lord Nelson, however, defeated him in the Battle of Nile in 1798 A.D. It shattered all the dreams of Napoleon. It has been rightly remarked, "*The famous Battle of the Nile decided the fate of France for ever. It not only established the supremacy of England over the Mediterranean but also gave a rude shock to Napoleon's hope of conquering her possessions in the East*". In the absence of Napoleon England formed a second Coalition (1798-1800 A.D.) against France with Russia, Austria, Portugal and Turkey.

(4) *Napoleon as the First Consul, 1798-1804 A.D.* When Napoleon heard about the formation of the 2nd Coalition against his country he secretly slipped to France from Egypt leaving his army behind. With the help of Abbe Sieyes he overthrew the Directory in 1799 A.D. and was appointed the First Consul according to the New Constitution. He followed a vigorous and spirited foreign policy. He brought round the Czar of Russia and persuaded him to leave the coalition. Then Napoleon defeated the Austrian army in the Battle of Marengo in 1800 A.D. The army under the command of French General Moreau won a great victory at the Battle of Hohenlinden in Germany. The Emperor of Austria was forced to sign the Treaty of Luneville which confirmed the terms of the Treaty of Campo Formio. The coalition thus broke up and England was left alone in the field. Both the countries had become tired of incessant wars and wanted respite to organise their military forces. They therefore, signed the Treaty of Amiens in 1802 A.D. and the war came to an end.

(5) *Napoleon as an Emperor, 1804-1814 A.D.* Napoleon became the First Consul for life in 1802 A.D. but later on he became the Emperor of France in 1804 A.D. The Treaty of Amiens (1801 A.D.) however, did not have a lasting effect. It only gave breathing time to make preparation for future wars which started again in 1803 A.D. In 1805 A.D. England organized the Third Coalition against France with the help of Austria, Prussia and Russia.

Napoleon organized an army and made a plan to invade England with the co-operation of Spain. Lord Nelson shattered his dream by defeating the French and Spanish fleets. Lord Nelson defeated the French navy decisively in the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805 A.D. Napoleon could not dare to face the English navy after this defeat but the French army once again swept everything before them by winning remarkable victories on land. The French defeated the Austrian army at Ulm on October 20, 1805 A.D. and thus Napoleon succeeded in entering Vienna as a victor. Then he inflicted a crushing defeat on the combined armies of Austria and Russia on 2nd December, 1805 A.D. at Austerlitz. Austria was forced to sign the Treaty of Pressburg with Napoleon. Napoleon then defeated Prussia in 1806 A.D. in the Battle of Jena. He defeated Russia in the Battle of Friedland in 1807 A.D. and compelled her to sign the Treaty of Tilsit. By 1810 A.D. Napoleon was at the zenith of his power. The whole continent lay at his feet. He had humbled Austria and Prussia and rendered them powerless. Small states of Europe now greatly feared him. He held sway over all Europe except England. He was the master of almost the whole of Europe.

(6) *Peninsular Wars and the Moscow Campaign.* Napoleon was fully convinced that it was difficult to defeat England with the help of French fleet and armies as the British Navy had established its supremacy over the sea. In order to destroy the power and prosperity of England, which depended on trade, Napoleon followed a novel plan, which is known as the Continental System. By it he tried to check the imports of English goods to any part of Europe. But this system failed to achieve its objective.

With a view to establish his domination over Portugal and Spain Napoleon started a war against them in 1808 A.D. This war is known in history as the Peninsular War. Napoleon, however, failed badly in winning this war. His defeat in this war gave a fatal blow to his honour, power and glory and shattered all his dreams and ambitions.

Russia had accepted the continental system in 1807 A.D. It adversely affected her trade and the whole economy of Russia was upset. So the Czar of Russia refused to abide by the Continental System in 1800 A.D. Napoleon invaded Russia in 1812 A.D. with a large army. Instead of fighting the Czar adopted the strategy of retreating and destroying crops, villages and towns so that the enemy might not take the advantage of them. Consequently, thousands of French soldiers were killed by hunger, exhaustion, severe winter, rain and snow etc. Napoleon was thus forced to retreat. Thus the Moscow Campaign also proved very harmful and suicidal to Napoleon and became the major cause of his downfall.

(7) *Napoleon and the Fourth Coalition, 1813—1815 A.D.* Napoleon's Moscow Campaign was an utter failure and was his first great defeat. It lowered his prestige and demoralized the French

army. England raised the Fourth Coalition against France in 1813 A D with the help of Austria, Russia and Prussia and once again declared war on Napoleon. The Allies defeated him in the Battle of Leipzig in 1813 A D. It is known as the Battle of Nations. He was imprisoned and exiled to the Island of Elba in 1814 A D. Napoleon however, once again tried to recapture the throne of France. He left Elba and reached France secretly on 1st March, 1815 A D. His old soldiers and followers again joined him. With their help he seized the throne of France on March 20, 1815 A.D. and ruled France again for 100 days. Napoleon was, however, defeated very badly by the forces of the Allies in the Battle of Waterloo in 1815 A.D. He was imprisoned in the Island of St Helena in the Atlantic Ocean. He died there on March 5, 1821 A D.

✓3. **Napoleon as a Ruler and an Administrator.** Napoleon was an efficient and able ruler and a great administrator. He was an organiser and statesman of high order. He carried out a number of reforms to heal the wounds of the Revolution and the corrupt rule.

✓(1) *Administrative Reforms.* The country had been plunged into a chaotic state and Napoleon set-up a strong centralized government to restore peace and order. Local government was dominated by the central government. The people had now no hand in the administration of their local affairs. Each department was governed by a Prefect and every town was under a Mayor. They were all appointed by the central government, received orders from it and were responsible to it for their work. He laid great stress on merit. He started a practice of conferring a degree of honours on the persons who rendered useful services to the state and the society.

✓(2) *Economic Reforms.* Napoleon took various steps to remove the financial crisis and stabilize the economy of France. He improved the structure of taxation. Taxation was based on the principle of justice. People had to pay taxes according to their income. Unnecessary expenditure on administration was avoided. To improve the economic condition of the country and to provide commercial facilities to the traders, he established the Bank of France in 1804 A D. According to Hayes, "*It was one of the soundest financial institutions of the world.*"

✓(3) *Educational Reforms.* Napoleon realized the importance of education in national regeneration and in building up the national character. So he introduced many reforms in education, as well. He opened many Primary and Secondary Schools. Special schools such as Technical Schools, Military schools and Civil Services Schools were put under the control of the government. A Normal School was opened in Paris to train teachers. The University of France was established to bring uniformity in education and to control the institutions meant for higher education. The whole educational policy was based on three principles, (i) Loyalty to the head of the state; (ii) Faith in Christianity and (iii) Obedience to the rules and regulations of the Department of Education and the University.

(4) *Works of Public Utility.* Napoleon was deeply interested in the welfare of the people. To improve the means of communication, trade and commerce he constructed many roads, bridges and dams. Barren land was brought under cultivation. A net-work of canals and water-ways was laid for irrigation. Various sea-ports were enlarged for commercial and naval purposes. He was very fond of constructing buildings. He increased the grandeur and splendour of Paris. He took many steps for the progress of art and literature. According to Prof. Hazen, "*The period of Consulate is that part of Bonaparte's career which was most contributory to the welfare of his country.*"

(5) *Religious Reforms.* Most of the people in France were Catholics. Napoleon wanted to use their influence for the welfare of the state. He wanted that the head of the state should be a guide in religious matters also. He expressed his religious policy in the following words :—

"The people must have a religion and that religion must be under the control of the government: People say that I am a Popist. I am nothing. I am a Mohammed in Egypt. I shall be Catholic in France for the good of the people."

He followed the policy of religious toleration and freedom and tried to remove the gulf between the Catholics and the State. He entered into an agreement, known as '*Concordat*' in 1801 A.D. with Pope Pius VII of Rome to establish firm relationship between the Church and the State. The Catholic Church was the official church of France. All the priests and bishops had to take oath of loyalty to the state and were to be paid out of the royal treasury.

His reforms and religious agreement endured for a long time and that is a great tribute to his organising capabilities. Many of his reforms served as a light-tower to other countries of Europe. He has been rightly called the creator of Modern France because of his reforms. In the words of Southgate, "*Old problems were solved by him and he worked for the prosperity of France. His achievements as a conqueror came in the end to nothing, his empire was over-thrown. But his work as an administrator was too solid to be discarded, his system of government survived him and he must be given credit for much that is of permanent value in French life today.*"

4. **Napoleon as a Law-giver.** The most durable part of his work was in the field of law. He got prepared various Codes of Law. Of all the codes, his '*Civil Code*' known as the '*Code Napoleon*' is the most famous. To quote him, "*My real glory is not having won 40 battles, what will never be effaced, what will endure for ever is my Civil Code.*"

Before this, many legal systems prevailed in France. There was no uniformity in laws. They differed from place to place. They were complex, contrary to one another and beyond the comprehension of the people. Napoleon appointed a committee of jurists, experts and eminent persons to prepare these codes. His Civil Code

was very simple, clear and based on the principle of justice and equality. His second code was known as '*Code of Civil Procedure*'. His third code or the '*Criminal Procedure Code*' dealt with criminal cases. His fourth code was known as the '*Penal Code*'. Provisions for punishment for different offences was made in it. His fifth code or the '*Commercial Code*', dealt with general commerce, maritime commerce and mercantile laws etc.

According to Prof **Hazen** "*The famous Code Napoleon was an orderly, systematic compact statement of laws of France. It gave to the people of France a body of laws clear, rational and logically arranged*"

SECTION 5—CAUSES OF THE DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON

At the time of Treaty of Tiesit (1807 A.D.) Napoleon was at the height of his power and glory. His rule extended not only over France but also over the greater part of Europe. He had become the emperor of such a large empire by dint of his ability and genius. After his defeat in the Battle of Waterloo in 1815 A.D. he was exiled to St. Helena where he died in 1821 A.D. The following were the main causes of his downfall :—

(1) *Limit to Human Capacity* Napoleon was a genius and possessed a sharp intellect and high imaginative power. But he was a human being and there is a limit to human capacity. He wanted to perform miracles in no time and accomplish all the jobs in hand all alone. He had too many irons in the fire. But being a human being he could not complete them single-handed and he failed in the end.

(2) *Napoleon was Ambitious.* Napoleon was ambitious. He extended the boundaries of his empire beyond limit and it became unwieldy. His successes turned his head and he began to dream of becoming a world conqueror. He conquered many nations who became his enemies. He used brute force to realize his aim and did not realize that mere brute force could not bring success.

(3) *Napoleon's Pride.* As shown above, Napoleon's successes had made him proud and haughty. He always boasted of his genius and capacity. He considered himself superior to all in head and heart. He thought himself so wise that he never consulted his seasoned advisers. He always thought that his judgements were correct. He never took advantage of the experience and far sight of the intellectual giants like Fouché. Most of his judgements proved faulty and brought about his downfall. During his campaign in Spain he once remarked, "*I may find the pillars of Hercules in Spain, but I shall not find the limits of my power. I have seen nothing so cowardly as these Spanish nobles and troops*"

(4) *Policy of Over-centralization and Despotic Rule* Napoleon followed the policy of over-centralization. He took all the powers

of the state in his own hands and never shared his powers and responsibilities with his officials. This increased his burden beyond limits. The people had no hand in administration and consequently they lost initiative in all matters. This policy brought about inefficiency in the administration and led to his fall. When he took the reins of the administration in his hands he began to behave like a despotic ruler. His rule was based on the principle of equality and he deprived the people of their liberty. His autocratic rule slowly and slowly became intolerable and the people began to condemn Napoleon.

(5) *His Militarism.* Napoleon possessed a very large and powerful army. He subdued almost the whole of Europe by his military strength. His trained and experienced generals and soldiers were killed in incessant wars fought by him. It crippled the military strength of France. The new army raised by him was, however, not properly trained, disciplined and well equipped, so it failed to face the Allies. The French were tired of his militarism. So he recruited the Germans, Poles, Italians etc. in his army. But this new army ceased to be a national army. The very militarism which helped him to bring the whole of Europe under his sway also led to his downfall. His army could not face the combined armies of England, Austria, Russia and Prussia.

(6) *The Continental System.* Napoleon wanted to bring England on her knees. But he could not invade England directly in the absence of a powerful navy. He knew fully well that England's trade was the source of her strength. In order to ruin her trade he introduced the Continental System. But it was his greatest blunder and it proved very fatal to him. He could not enforce this system for want of a powerful fleet. He compelled the vessel states to accept it but it ruined their trade and commerce. It led to rise in prices and added to the sufferings of the people of Europe. Consequently the European countries began to defy this system and it hastened his decline. It has been rightly remarked, "*The continental system of Napoleon was the principal tragedy in the drama of his fall.*"

(7) *The Peninsular War.* Napoleon wanted to enforce the Continental System in Spain and Portugal. But they refused to oblige him. Napoleon then declared war against them. He forced the King of Spain to abdicate and installed his brother on the throne of Spain. But such a policy led to a great national upsurge in Spain against Napoleon. Consequently, Napoleon was involved in the Peninsular War for a long time and it proved suicidal to him. Napoleon is said to have once remarked, "*It was the Spanish ulcer that ruined me.*"

(8) *The Russian Campaign.* Russia refused to abide by the Continental System in 1810 A.D. So Napoleon invaded Russia with a large army in 1812 A.D. But his Russian campaign was a great blunder. It proved fatal for him. A large number of soldiers died

of cold, disease and shortage of food and clothes. His grand army was smashed. This campaign crippled his military strength and gave a great blow to his power and prestige. When his military strength was reduced, his empire fell like a house of cards.

(9) *Spirit of Nationalism* Napoleon conquered many countries. His empire was based on force and the people of the conquered territories had no say in the administration of their countries. He greatly repressed these people and committed many atrocities on them. He deposed their rulers and placed his relatives on the thrones of these territories. He deprived them of their freedom. Napoleon enslaved them for the sake of his personal glory. It hurt their national self respect. They began to hate the foreign rule. His unjust and tyrannical rule awakened the feeling of nationalism in the conquered territories and inspired them to rise against Napoleon and put an end to his power.

(10) *Naval Power and strong Finances of England* Naval power of England was superior to that of France. Lord Nelson inflicted a crushing defeat on Napoleon and smashed his naval power. Napoleon organized a large army to invade England but the English navy and English channel stood in his way. Thus the superior naval power of England led to the failure of the Continental System. England was the richest country of Europe at that time because of the Industrial Revolution. As a result England organised four coalitions, one after the other, against France with the help of other European countries. She helped them with men, money and material and ultimately succeeded in defeating Napoleon.

SECTION 6—ESTIMATE OF NAPOLEON

While Napoleon's friends and admirers have praised him like anything, his enemies and opponents have painted him as a devil. They called him the '*Tyrant of Europe*'. In their opinion he was unjust and tyrant and wanted to establish his despotic rule over the whole of Europe. He was too much ambitious and hungry of fame, power and conquests. He was an imperialist and wanted to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond limits. He was proud and selfish.

In spite of his weaknesses and failures, Napoleon was an important figure in the history of the world and played an important role in it. He was a versatile genius and a marvellously gifted man. He was a man with a strong physique, great physical power, sharp intellect, and strong memory. He was a civilized and cultured person and a great writer and orator. He was not only a great conqueror but also an able administrator, organiser and a great statesman. He rendered useful service to the people of France who had suffered at the hands of the Revolution. He established a stable and orderly government and ensured political order in

France. He regenerated France on the basis of the principle of equality. He set-up a classless society by abolishing feudalism and serfdom. He followed the policy of religious toleration and granted religious freedom to all. He introduced many useful reforms. He established a national system of education to promote nationalism. He carried out many economic reforms to improve the finances of the country. He systematized the laws of the land and established a uniform system of law in the country. His code was very simple and clear. His administrative system was so efficient and useful that his successors followed it for a very long time.

Napoleon's services to Europe were in no way less important than his services to France. His empire in Europe did not last long but it had far-reaching and permanent effects on France as well as on many countries of Europe. He swept away the old regime and old institutions and practices from the conquered territories. He established new political order and organised society on the principle of equality. He carried the revolutionary ideals to other countries of Europe. He put an end to feudalism, serfdom and class distinctions in these countries. His code was recognized not only in France but in other countries of Europe as well. Even these days, this code is prevalent in France and with some modifications in Italy, Holland, Belgium and Germany. The French soldiers went to fight in the European countries and they carried with them the revolutionary ideals of liberty, equality and fraternity and laid the foundation of nationalism there. After the rise of nationalism these people girded up their loins to break the bondage of slavery and regain their independence. The spirit of nationalism eradicated the old regime and paved the way for the new era. The credit to pave the way to the unification of Italy and Germany directly or indirectly, greatly goes to Napoleon. To quote **Hayes**, "*Thanks to the events of Napoleonic era, the revolution which originally had been French, was becoming European. It was strong enough to communicate their population a taste of the new regime.*"

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

1. Causes of the French Revolution—

(1) *Political Causes.* (1) Arbitrary rule; (2) Inefficient administration, (2) Mal-administration of Justice; (4) Weak Monarchy; (5) Expensive Monarchy; (6) Absence of any Representative Body.

(2) *Social Causes.* (1) The condition of the clergy, (2) The condition of the Nobles, (3) The condition of the commoners.

(3) *Economic Causes.* (1) Heavy National Debt, (2) Defective system of Taxation.

(4) *Psychological Causes.* (1) Influence of the French Philosophers; (2) Influence of the American War of Independence.

(5) *Immediate Cause.* In order to remove the financial crisis, the King summoned the Estates General in 1789 A.D. which marked the beginning of the Revolution.

2. Course of the Revolution (1) Meeting of the Estates General in 1789; (2) Tennis-Court Oath; (3) The Royal Session

June 23, 1789 ; (4) Fall of Bastille, July, 1789 A.D.; (5) Work of the National Assembly—Abolition of the rights of the privileged class, (6) King's attempt to flee ; (7) The Legislative Assembly ; (8) War with Austria in 1792 A.D. ; (9) The National Convention from 1792 to 1795 A.D. ; (10) Execution of Louis XVI. January 21, 1793 A.D. , (11) Reign of Terror, 1793-94 A.D. ; (12) Directory, 1795 to 1799 A.D., (13) Consulate and Napoleon as the First Consul, (14) Napoleon became Emperor of France in 1804 A.D. ; His defeat in the Battle of Waterloo in 1805 A.D. and end of the French Revolution.

3. Effects of the French Revolution. (1) Effects on France ; (2) Effects on England ; (3) Effects on Ireland, (4) Equality, (5) Liberty : (6) Popular Sovereignty , (7) Spirit of Nationalism ; (8) Spread of the Idea of Democracy ; (9) Education , (10) Fraternity and Social welfare.

4 Career and Achievements of Napoleon

(1) *Early career, Education and rise to Power.*

(2) *Napoleon as a General and a Conqueror.* (1) Conquest of Toulon, 1793 A.D. ; (2) His campaigns in Italy (1796-97 A.D.) , (3) His campaign in Egypt 1798 A.D.; (4) Napoleon as a First Consul in 1799 A.D , 2nd coalition ; (5) Napoleon as an Emperor ; (6) Peninsular war and Moscow campaign of 1812 A.D. ; (7) Napoleon and the Fourth Coalition

(3) *Napoleon as a Ruler and an Administrator.* (1) Administrative Reforms ; (2) Economic Reforms ; (3) Educational Reforms ; (4) Works of Public utility , (5) Religious Reforms

(4) *Napoleon as a Law-Giver.* He got prepared various Codes of Law.

5. Causes of the Downfall of Napoleon. (1) Limit to human capacity ; (2) Napoleon was ambitious ; (3) Napoleon's pride , (4) Policy of over-centralization and Despotism , (5) His Militarism , (6) The Continental System ; (7) The Peninsular War ; (8) The Russian Campaign 1812 A.D. ; (9) Spirit of nationalism , (10) Naval Power and strong finances of England.

6 Estimate of Napoleon. In spite of his defects he was a great figure in the history of the world , a versatile genius and a gifted man , his legacy to France ; his legacy to Europe.

University and other Important Questions

1. Is it true to say that the French Revolution was one of the most important events in the history of civilization ? Why ?

(A I. Hr. Sec 1966)

2. Broadly outline the causes of the French Revolution.

(A I. Hr. Sec. 1967)

3. Describe briefly the main causes and results of the French Revolution.

(Multi-purpose Hr. Sec. 1968, 69, B U. 1959, 68, 69)

4. Describe the course of events which led to the rise of Napoleon. What were the Causes of his downfall ?

(B.U. 1960)

5. Explain why the French Revolution took place, and can it be considered as perhaps the most important event in modern World History.

(B.U. 1961)

6. Estimate Napoleon Bonaparte as a general, administrator and law-giver. (B.U. 1964)
7. Trace the main events that led to the outbreak of the French Revolution. What did it achieve in France and in countries outside France? (B.U. 1965)
8. Give a brief account of the system of government and organisation of society under which the people of France lived before the outbreak of the Revolution in 1789 A.D. (B.U. 1966)
9. Examine the achievements of Napoleon Bonaparte, and discuss the causes of his downfall. (B.U. 1967)
10. "The French Revolution was a landmark not only in the history of Europe, but also in the history of the World." What were the important changes brought about by it. (C.B.S.E. 1971)
11. Write short notes on the following :—
 - (i) The nobility and the clergy before the French Revolution ; (ii) The condition of the Third Estate ; (iii) Montesquieu ; (iv) Voltaire ; (v) Rousseau ; (vi) Diderot ; (vii) Declaration of the Rights of Man ; (viii) Reign of Terror ; (ix) The Code Napoleon ; (x) Continental system ; (xi) Napoleon as a Reformer (B.U. 1966, 77), (xii) Importance of the French Revolution ; (xiii) all of Bastille.
12. Fill in the blanks :
 - (i) The French Revolution started in 1789
 - (ii) 'Social Contract' was written by
 - (iii) Revolution started with the fall of
 - (iv) Napoleon became the First Consul in 1799
 - (v) Napoleon was exiled to ... after his defeat in the Battle of Waterloo.
13. Write four lines on each of the following :
 - (i) Four main causes of the French Revolution.
 - (ii) Four results of the French Revolution.
 - (iii) Four main causes of the fall of Napoleon.
 - (iv) Lord Nelson
 - (v) Moscow campaign was a great blunder of Napoleon.
14. Name the following :
 - (i) Three great philosophers of France (1) (2) (3)
 - (ii) Two French rulers responsible for the Revolution (1) (2)
 - (iii) Three European countries who organised coalitions against France (1) ... (2) .. (3) ..
 - (iv) General who defeated Napoleon in the Battle of Waterloo (1)
 - (v) Island where Napoleon was exiled (1) ...
 - (vi) Fort which was stormed first of all by the revolutionaries (1)
 - (vii) Place of Napoleon's birth (1)
 - (viii) Ruler of France at the time of the Revolution (1)
 - (ix) Name of the Queen of Louis XVI (1)
 - (x) Law book of Napoleon (1) ...
15. Why are the following dates important for—

25th May 1789, 20th June 1789 ; 19th July 1789 ; 6th October, 1789 ; 21st January 1793; 1799, 1802, 1804 and 1815

The Industrial Revolution

SECTION 1—MEANING AND CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

1. Meaning and Nature of the Industrial Revolution. During the second half of the 18th century and the first half of the 19th century, many changes took place in the field of industry. The term 'Industrial Revolution' has been used to denote all those changes. Formerly the things used to be manufactured at home with hand. Industries, if any, were small scale industries based on the domestic system. Under this system a small capitalist brought the raw-material and gave it to his employees who did their work in their own homes in the spare time. The capitalist gave material and tools and paid wages to the employees. Gradually the employees began to work with the help of machines in the factories started by the capitalists. All these changes taken together are known as the Industrial Revolution. *It was a change from hand work to machine work and from domestic system to factory system.* According to **H.A. Davies**, "*The Industrial Revolution is a term which is used to express the change which was responsible for the adoption of the system of making things on a large scale in large factories with the aid of steam power, as opposed to the old system, which was generally followed up to the middle of the 18th century, of making goods in cottages or shops of workers.*" To quote **Charles Beard**, "*By the Industrial Revolution, we mean that great transformation, which has been brought about during the past 150 years, by discoveries and inventions, which have altered fundamentally, all the methods of production and distribution, of means of life and consequently revolutionized all the economic functions of the society.*"

Its essence was the adoption of large scale production by means of power-driven machinery in big factories, which could be established and maintained only by a large expenditure of capital and worked by only organised groups of labourers.

Unlike other revolutions, the Industrial Revolution was completely economic in nature. All revolutions such as the American Revolution, the French Revolution, the Russian Revolution, etc., were accompanied by bloodshed but the Industrial Revolution, was mainly peaceful. It was a silent but mighty upheaval, while

all other revolutions had a definite beginning and a definite end the Industrial Revolution had no end. It was a continuous process and is still going on. Unlike other revolutions, the Industrial Revolution caused great sufferings to the workers and produced many sources of happiness for the capitalists.

2. Causes of the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution began first of all in England. There were many factors responsible for it :—

(1) *Increase in the Demand of English Goods.* England manufactured cheap and very useful goods such as woollen and linen cloth and iron and wooden articles. The demand for English goods went on increasing. In order to meet this demand and produce goods in large quantities, the Englishmen made new machines and invented new techniques of production. On the other hand France manufactured luxury goods for the rich and naturally the demand for them was limited.

(2) *Character of the English.* The Englishmen possessed an inventive genius and were very enthusiastic and courageous. They enjoyed the freedom of thought and expression. There was free scope for experimentation and the government did not interfere in their daily life. It was in this atmosphere that Englishmen thought of new methods of production in the different fields. As a result a large number of inventions were made by the English scientists and engineers which brought about a revolution in industry in England.

(3) *Ample Capital.* England had ample capital for large enterprises. England's supremacy over seas and her naval power greatly encouraged sea-trade and commerce. As a result the Englishmen had amassed a great wealth through their trade and industry. There was a lot of surplus capital available in the country and that could be used for investment in different industries and installing new factories.

(4) *Peaceful Atmosphere.* The political and social stability also helped in the growth of industries. The Englishmen are patriotic and have a great love for peace and order. Naval supremacy of England also kept her safe from external attacks. The Whig leaders, like Walpole, followed a policy of peace and kept away from European wars and thus saved England from the burden of costly wars. This peaceful atmosphere and political stability enabled England to develop her industries on a large scale.

(5) *Naval Supremacy.* The English naval supremacy was also helpful in the development of industries. The articles manufactured in the English factories could be easily transported to the various parts of the world and sold profitably. Her navy at the same time, helped her to prevent her European rivals from exploiting over-seas markets.

(6) *Colonial Empire.* England had a large colonial empire. From her colonies she could get different raw materials at cheaper rates for her factories. These colonies also served as markets for English manufactured goods. On the other hand France, Spain and Holland had to depend on their own home markets for the disposal of their manufactured goods. Hence they could not compete successfully with England.

(7) *Availability of Coal and Iron.* Iron and coal were available in England in large quantity and again there, the iron and coal mines were situated near to each other. Iron was used in making machines and coal provided cheap fuel for running machines and factories. Both these factors helped in the development of industries.

(8) *Availability of Cheap Labour.* The feudal system broke down in England earlier than any other country of Europe. The agrarian revolution preceded the industrial revolution in England. As a result a large number of peasants were thrown out of employment. Such persons shifted to industrial cities. So a large number of labourers were easily available in England who could be employed in the factories. Moreover, they were freemen and could move to any place they liked. On the other hand, France was still an agricultural country. The peasants were bound to their masters and could not shift to cities easily.

(9) *Rivers for Producing Electricity.* The rivers in England run very swiftly and that too all the year round. So it is quite easy to produce electricity from them cheaply and in large quantity. The availability of cheap power for factories went a long way in the development of industries in England.

(10) *Immigration of Artisans.* Many Protestant artisans of Spain and France not only migrated to England due to religious persecution but also they settled there permanently. The English government on her part provided them shelter and rendered the monetary help and in return made full use of their skill. It gave a great impetus to industry in England.

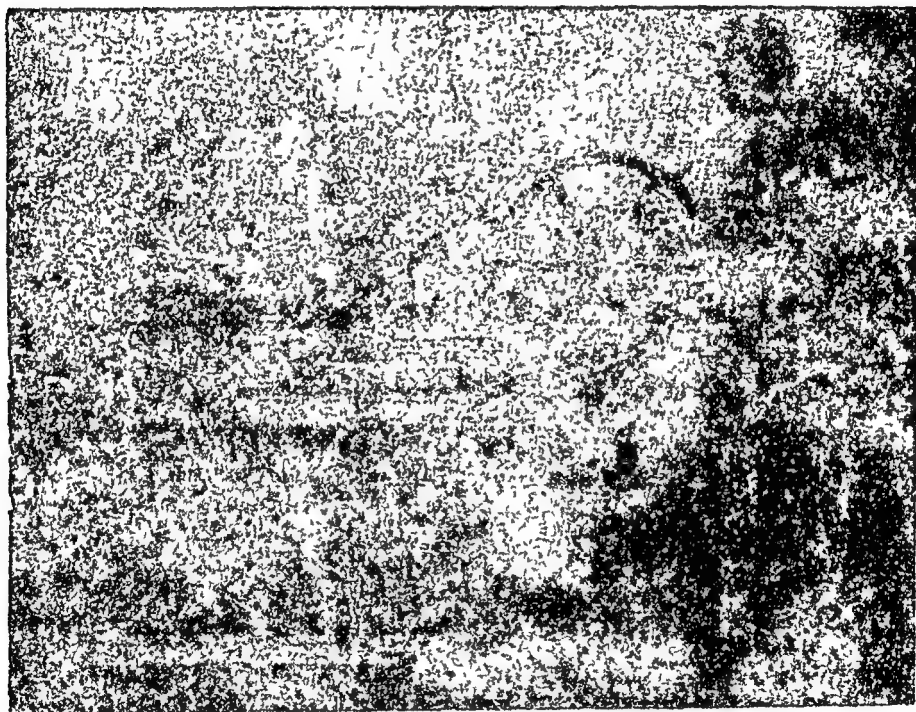
(11) *Napoleonic Wars.* The Napoleonic wars completely disrupted the peace and prosperity of the different European countries. England, however, remained aloof from the rest of the continent and carried on her economic activities undisturbed. Napoleon enforced the Continental System to check the export of English goods to European countries but it proved an utter failure. England brought raw material from her colonies and sold her manufactured goods there. Moreover, different European countries were dependent on English goods. They were forced to smuggle the English goods by one way or the other. Instead of ruining the English commerce and industry, the Napoleonic wars gave a great impetus to them.

SECTION 2—COURSE OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION OR IMPORTANT INVENTIONS

Course of the Industrial Revolution particularly in England. The English scientists and engineers in particular, made a number of inventions and invented new machines, which revolutionized the industrial system in England.

1. Industrial Revolution in the Cloth Industry —

(1) **John Key**, a weaver of Lancashire, invented '*The Flying Shuttle*' in 1733 A.D. It greatly increased the speed of weaving. It also made the weaving of broad cloth by one man possible.



Hargreaves' Spinning Jenny.

(2) In 1765 A.D. **James Hargreaves** of Lancashire invented '*The Spinning Jenny*'. It was a wheel which helped the spinner to turn eight spindles at a time. Thus one spinner was able to do the work of eight spinners.

(3) In 1769 A.D., another Lancashire weaver, **Arkwright** invented the '*Water Frame*'. It produced harder and stronger yarn than the Spinning Jenny, but it was run by water-power and could not be installed in houses. In a way it, however, ushered in the factory system.

(4) In 1779 A.D. **Samuel Crompton** invented '*The Mule*'. It combined the advantages of the Spinning Jenny and the Water-Frame. The yarn was both hard and fine.

(5) In 1785 A.D a clergyman named **Cartwright** invented the "*Power Loom*." It revolutionized the weaving industry. With its help one spinner could operate about 100 spindles.

(6) An American school teacher named **Whitney** invented a machine called the '*Cotton Gin*'. It helped in separating seeds from the fibres of raw cotton.

(7) Various methods were invented for printing, bleaching and dyeing purposes. **Elias Howe** invented the '*Sewing Machine*' in 1846 A.D.

2. **Use of Steam as a Motive Power.** So far, all machines were run by water-power, wind-power or horse-power. The in-



James Watt

vention of '*Steam Engine*' by **New Comen** was an important step in the field of industrialisation. It was used for pumping water out of the coal-mines. **James Watt** made improvements in it and perfected it. His steam engine was called '*Beelzebub*'. It could be used not only for pumping water out of the coal-mines but also in the spinning and weaving machines in the textile industry. To quote **Prof. Hazen**, "*The steam-engine became the centre of the modern factory system of production, the throbbing heart of every industry.*"

Later on *electricity* came to be used in industry. An English man named **Michael Faraday** invented the '*Dynamo*'.

3. **Revolution in the Art of Smelting Iron.** Iron is indispensable for manufacturing machines. The iron ore, which is obtained from the mines, had to be purified and strengthened before use. Formerly wood charcoal was used for smelting iron. It was a very costly affair. In 1709 A.D., however, **Abraham Derby** made a discovery of smelting iron with coke. **Henry Cort** invented new methods of rolling iron. In 1790 A.D. blasting was done with steam power. In 1856 A.D. **Bessemer** invented a new method of removing impurities and making steel. The invention of steel helped the manufacture of strong and accurate tools and machines.

Extracting of iron ore from the mines involved two risks. The mines were often filled with water and it was quite difficult to work in them. At the same time the mines used to burst when the coal gases caught fire. In 1705 A.D., however, **Thomas Newcomen** invented an engine to pump water out of mines. In 1815 A.D., **Humphrey Davy** invented the '*Safety Lamp*' which enabled the miners to do their work with safety.

4. Revolution in the Means of Transport—

(1) *Roads.* Better means of transport are necessary for the development of industries because the raw material had to be brought into the factories and the manufactured goods had to be carried away from the factories. Roads in England were in a very hopeless condition. **John Macadam**, an engineer of Scotland, made strong roads in England with the help of small stones. Soon a large number of roads were constructed all over the country.

(2) *Canals.* Water was also used to carry heavy goods to distant places. Transportation of goods by canals was cheaper than carrying them by roads. **James Brindley** constructed a network of canals and important towns like Birmingham, London, Liverpool, Manchester, etc., were soon linked by canals.

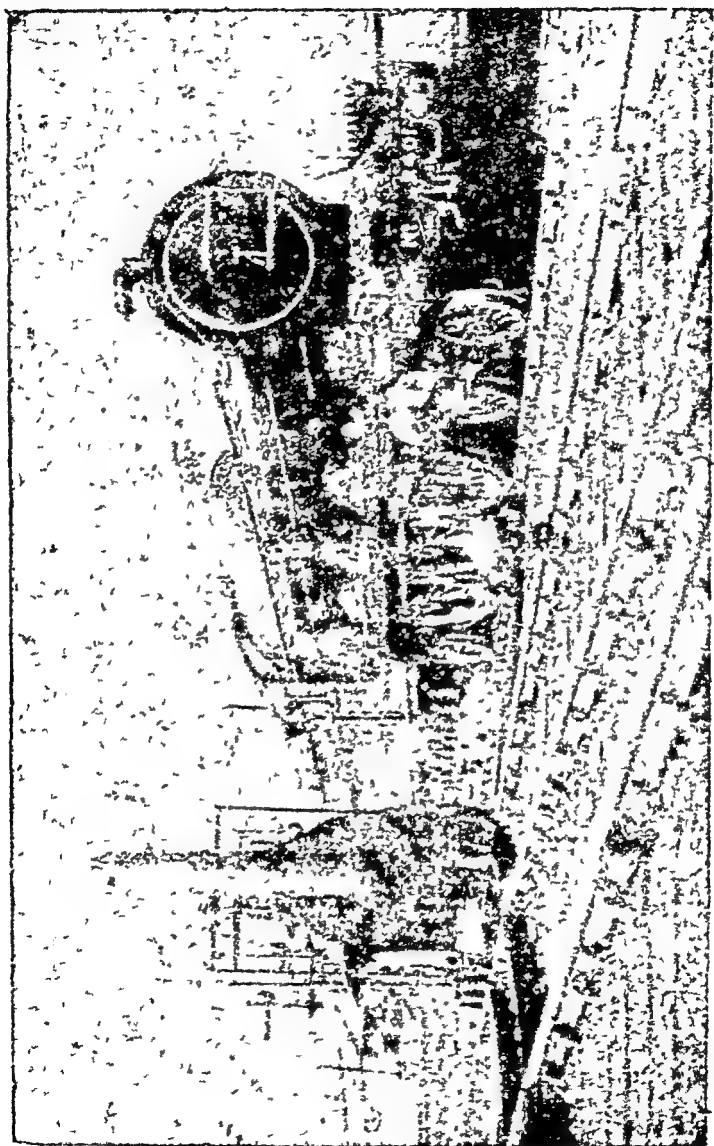
(3) *Railway Engine.* After the invention of steam engine by James Watt, an engineer, named **Trevithick**, invented the first steam locomotive in 1801 A.D. to carry goods. **George Stephenson** is, however, called the father of the steam locomotive. He invented an improved form of steam engine known as '*Rocket*' in 1814 A.D. to carry coal. In 1830 A.D. the first passenger railway, between Liverpool and Manchester, was opened, and Stephenson's engine, '*The Rocket*', attained a speed of over 30 miles an hour. By the middle of the 19th century, a large number of railways were built up throughout the country.

(4) *Steam Ships.* An American scientist, **Robert Fulton** (1807 A.D.) was the pioneer in the field of steam navigation. He invented a steam-boat which completed the trip of 150 miles on the River Hudson at the speed of five miles per hour. In 1825

A.D. the first steam-ship sailed from Glasgow to Liverpool. The era of steam navigation on the seas and oceans began in 1833 A.D. when the Great Western, (a ship) crossed the Atlantic Ocean in 15 days.

A Century of progress in Railway Engine.

The Old and the New



(5) *Motor Cars.* The invention of the motor car run by petrol was made by a German engineer, Daimler at the end of the 19th century.

5. **Revolution in the Means of Communication.** Morse invented the method of sending messages through telegraph wires first of all. In 1835 A.D. the first electric telegraph came

into existence and 16 years later the first underseas cable was laid between England and France. In a few years the *telegraph system* spread throughout the civilized world. *Postal service* started in 1840 A.D. **Bell** invented the '*telegraph*' in 1876 A.D. As a result of these inventions the news which used to travel slowly from one place to the other could be flashed quickly from one end of the earth to the other.

6. **Industrial Revolution in other Countries.** According to **John Conard Appel**, "*The Industrial Revolution began in England but it was not confined there. It spread to other countries as well. They also developed their industries because inventive genius is not the monopoly of one nation. The knowledge of industrial methods spread to other parts of the world, and other nations also made their contributions to it.*"

After the restoration of peace in 1815 A.D. the European countries and even the U.S.A. borrowed English ideas, tools, machines and even English money. Many Englishmen helped European countries in the process of industrialization. **Cockevill** helped to found the machine industry of *Belgium*. **Douglas** made textile machines in *France* during the Consulate, while **Nottingham** introduced another important machine there. After 1830 A.D. France made tremendous progress in industry. During 1871-1914 A.D., *Germany* made notable progress in the industrial field and became one of the leading industrial nations of the world. This was due to her rich material resources, helpful government, efficient labour and large colonial empire. Industrial Revolution took place in *Russia* in the latter half of the 19th century. In the 19th century U.S.A. completely adopted the factory system of production and developed textile, iron, pottery, ship building, automobile industries, etc. Though the continental countries borrowed much from England yet in some fields they went ahead of England. Germany surpassed England in the manufacture of metals and France in the beauty and design of her textiles. U.S.A. led in the field of automobiles. To quote **Conard Appel**, "*The Industrial Revolution spread until most of the people of the earth knew and experienced in their daily lives the fruits of that great upheaval, probably the greatest revolution the world had ever known.*"

SECTION 3—EFFECTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution was a great landmark in the history of the world. It revolutionized the industries and deeply affected the economic, social, political and cultural life of the people. **Ramsay Muir** has called it "*a mighty but silent upheaval.*"

1. Economic Effects.—

(1) *Large Scale Production.* The use of machinery and division of labour helped to produce goods on a large scale. Goods were

now manufactured more rapidly and on a much larger scale than under the domestic system. At the same time the cost of production was very low per unit. Production of goods was standardized also. Now the consumers could get quality goods at cheaper rates.

(2) *Increase in the National Income.* The Industrial production led to the mass production of goods which began to be sold in other countries. It increased the national wealth of the industrialized countries, particularly that of England. It increased her national wealth and enabled her to stand the strain of the French wars of 1793-1815 A.D. It has been rightly remarked, "*The rock upon which the Napoleonic Empire was founded were the factory chimneys of Yorkshire and Lancashire.*"

(3) *Improvement in the Standard of Living.* People became rich due to the Industrial Revolution. Good quality of goods were now made available at cheaper rates. It raised the standard of living. It greatly increased the comforts of the people. Now means of transport, communication, railways, ships, automobiles etc. proved a boon to the mankind and made man's life richer, more comfortable and happier. It not only improved the food, dress and dwellings of the people but also improved their way of thinking and intellectual standards.

(4) *Increase in Population.* The Industrial Revolution increased the national wealth, raised the standard of living, made life more convenient and luxurious. All this helped in checking the various diseases and ultimately it led to an increase in population. The population of England rose from 70 lakhs in 1750 A.D. to 210 lakhs in 1825 A.D.

(5) *Big Factories and Industrial Towns.* The introduction of machinery destroyed the domestic system of production. The growth of industries and the use of huge machines led to the establishment of factories. The people of villages shifted to towns and cities to get employment in the factories. This in turn led to the growth of new towns and cities in England such as Manchester, Birmingham, the Sheffield and Leeds. It made modern civilization essentially urban in character and the city-life broadened the outlook of man.

(6) *Growth of Agriculture.* Introduction of machinery, better seeds, new crops, the drainage of wasteland, the use of fertilizers and improvement in stock-breeding led to growth in agriculture. The farmers produced not only corns but also cash crops on a large scale and became very rich.

(7) *Development of Banking.* Progress in industry and commerce was responsible for the growth of Joint Stock and Trading Companies which carried on their business with the help of banks. The agriculturists also required loans for the improvement of agriculture. This led to the development of the Banking System.

(8) *National and International Markets.* The Industrial Revolution led to the development, first of national markets and then of international markets. The different governments began to levy heavy taxes on imported goods in order to safeguard their national industries. The Industrial Revolution also led to the production of goods on mass scale which necessitated their export to other countries. Thus, the import-export business led to the development of international markets.

2. Social Effects—

(1) *Disappearance of small Farmers.* The small farmers who worked on land and manufactured goods in their spare time in their homes shifted to new industrial towns and they were forced to seek employment in factories because they were replaced by big landlords.

(2) *Unsatisfactory Condition of Factory Workers.* In order to make huge profits the employers exploited the workers to the maximum. Workman had to work in factories which were poorly ventilated, poorly lighted and were extremely unhealthy. They had to work for 16 hours without any break. Most of the factories were located in dirty and unhealthy places so they caused many diseases and led to premature deaths of the workers. The workers were very low-paid and they found it very difficult to make their both ends meet.

(3) *Exploitation of Women and Children.* Women and children were employed in large numbers in factories as they were cheaper



A Cartoon of English Factory Slaves.

and easy to manage. They had to work for long hours in dirty,

insanitary and ill-ventilated factories. But it had an adverse effect on their health and general well-being. Even the youngest children worked from 3 A.M. to 10 P.M. with only four or five hours for sleep; as such they had very little time for meal and for play. They had also no time and no provision for their education. Children were often employed in the factories at the age of six or seven. Deformed bodies, twisted legs, sunken chests and savage appearance were the results of these circumstances. Later on, the government was forced to pass a number of factory laws to improve their condition.

(4) *Insanitary Conditions in the Towns.* As large number of people shifted from villages to industrial towns and as such the latter became over-crowded. There was no arrangement for sanitation, drainage, ventilation, etc. The workers lived a miserable life in dark, dingy and dirty and congested houses. As the population increased, the number of slums also went on increasing. It has been rightly remarked, "*The workers too often lived in miserable little houses that looked for all the world like cheese-boxes set in a row, without space for gardens, lawns or trees and without proper ventilation. Many a damp and dark cellars served as home for an entire family. Fevers and other diseases played havoc in towns like Manchester and Birmingham.*"

(5) *Moral Downfall of the Society* Women had also to work for long hours in the factories in order to supplement their family's income. As a result they had no time and energy to look after their children and house-hold duties. It was difficult for them to maintain their modesty and virtue under such circumstances. Vices like drinking, gambling, etc. were common among them. It led to degradation and immorality. To quote Hayes, "*Children working in the factories, from before dawn until after dark, quickly learned to imitate the vices of grown-ups. What family life was like under these circumstances, in one of the cellar or cheese-box homes of an industrial city, with ignorance, poverty, hunger, dirt, disease, and vice as enemies, may be left to the reader's imagination.*"

(6) *Two Classes of Society.* As a result of the Industrial Revolution the society was divided into two distinct classes—the capitalists and the labourers. Because of their selfish interests the capitalists began to exploit the workers. They paid them low wages and made them work for longer hours. They amassed great wealth and began to lead a luxurious life at the cost of the workers. The rich were becoming richer and the poor still poorer. This gulf went on widening and created social disharmony and ultimately led to struggle between the two classes.

(7) *Unemployment.* Unemployment, especially in the initial stages, was another social effect of the Industrial Revolution, which raised a serious problem for the industrialized countries. As the work was now done by machines many workers were thrown out of employment. Consequently the first '*Unemployed March*' was organised in England in 1817 A.D.

3. Political Effects—

(1) *England became a Dominant Power.* Because of the Industrial Revolution, England became a leading country in industry, commerce and finance. She amassed great wealth and became a dominant power. One of the factors, that helped England to defeat Napoleon and bear the loss of the American colonies, was the Industrial Revolution. It helped England to become the strongest power in the world.

(2) *Nationalism and Internationalism.* New means of transport and communication such as the railway, steam-boats, automobiles, telegraph and telephone, etc. brought the different parts of the countries nearer to each other and as such deepened the sense of national unity. They also linked up the whole world and made its various parts inter-dependent. Without the Industrial Revolution the international linking of the world would have been quite impossible.

(3) *The Capitalists became the Political Leaders.* The capitalists became so rich that they began to dominate the political life and use their wealth in seizing the political power. In England the capitalists dominated the Parliament for a very long time. Similar was and is the case with many of the modern capitalist countries.

(4) *Need for Factory Reforms.* The Industrial Revolution created many problems. The capitalists exploited the workers, who were not only paid low but also had to work for longer hours in unhealthy places. Consequently many factory laws had to be passed to remove these evils. As the Industrial Revolution resulted in the growth of crowded towns and smoky factories, so many laws had to be passed to tackle the problem of public health. The masses became poor and the government had to undertake various schemes to improve their miserable lot.

(5) *Need for Parliamentary Reforms in England.* As a result of the Industrial Revolution many people from the South and East of England shifted to the North and West of England and many industrial towns sprang up in these parts. It upset the whole system of representation to the English Parliament and the people of the new cities began to clamour for representations in the Parliament. This led to many parliamentary reforms in the 19th century.

(6) *The Chartist Movement in England.* The Industrial Revolution, besides bringing poverty created many problems for the workers. Forced by circumstances, they clamoured for the improvement of their lot. The distress of the workers under the factory system led to the Chartist Movement in England.

(7) *Search for New Colonies.* As industries developed in many of the European countries including England, America, France, Russia and Prussia, etc. they were forced to set up their colonies in other continents to get raw material and to capture new markets to sell their goods. This search for colonies led to colonial im-

perialism. To quote **Prof. Moon**, "*The industrial countries amassed huge wealth and became very rich. They had surplus capital. They were in search of politically and economically backward countries where they could invest their surplus capital and make huge profits. The need to get raw material, search for markets to dispose of manufactured goods and desire to invest surplus capital led to colonial imperialism.*" There was a race among the industrial countries to establish colonies in Asia and Africa.

(8) *Political Ideas.* The Industrial Revolution led to a perpetual struggle between the capitalists and the workers, thereby providing new horizons for the writers to fly. Various writers propounded various new theories and political ideas to improve the conditions of the workers and to solve the problems created by the Industrial Revolution. Thus various Isms, such as Socialism, Communism, Guild Socialism, Syndicalism, etc. came into being.

4. **Cultural Effects.** The Industrial Revolution also gave impetus to literary activities and deeply influenced the contemporary literature. It gave new inspiration to the poets and writers. They made the deplorable and miserable conditions of the workers in the factories, as the subject-matter of their poems and writings. They placed a touching pen-portrait of their wretched life before the people. The artists made cartoons depicting the miserable conditions of the women and children working in the factories. '*The Deserted Village*' and '*The Village School Master*' are the chief literary productions of this period.

In spite of its evils it cannot be denied that the Industrial Revolution had done plenty of good to mankind. It has increased the national wealth and raised the standard of the people and made their lives more comfortable. To quote **John Conard Appel**, "*The Industrial Revolution in the latter half of the 18th century ushered in a new world. The 19th and 20th centuries have developed and improved upon these inventions and discoveries. Now mankind may have a more comfortable and in many respects richer life.*"

Summary of the whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Meaning and Causes of the Industrial Revolution

(1) *Its Meaning and Nature.* It was a change from the domestic system to the factory system ; It resulted in mass production ; It was completely economic in character ; It was a peaceful revolution.

(2) *Causes of the Industrial Revolution.* Increase in the demand of English goods ; (2) Character of the English ; (3) Ample capital ; (4) Peaceful atmosphere ; (5) Naval supremacy ; (6) Colonial Empire ; (7) Availability of coal and iron ; (8) Availability of Labourers ; (9) Rivers for producing Electricity ; (10) Immigration of Artisans ; (11) Napoleonic Wars.

SECTION 2 :—Course of the Industrial Revolution or Important Inventions

(1) *Industrial Revolution in the Cloth Industry.* (1) John Key's Flying Shuttle ; (2) Hargreaves' Spinning Jenny ; (3) Arkwright's Water-Frame ; (4) Crompton's Mule ; (5) Cartwright's Powerloom ; (6) Whitney's Cotton Gin ; (7) New methods for bleaching, dyeing and printing cloth.

(2) *Use of Steam as Motive Power.* (1) New Cornen's Steam Engine ; (2) Improved Steam Engine *Beelzebub* by James Watt ; (3) Use of Electricity.

(3) *Revolution in the Art of Smelting Iron.* (1) Use of Charcoal ; (2) Use of coke by Derby ; (3) Henry Cort's invention ; (4) Bessemer's method of making steel ; (5) Lucoman's machine to pump water out of Mines , (6) Davy's Safety Lamp.

(4) *Revolution in the Means of Transport.* (1) Strong roads by Macadam ; (2) Canals ; (3) Railway Engine by Stephenson ; (4) Steam boats and Ships ; (5) Motor Cars.

(5) *Revolution in the Means of Communication.* (1) Telegraph System , (2) Postal Service ; (3) Under-sea Cables ; (4) Telephone.

(6) *Industrial Revolution in Other Countries.* England was followed by U.S.A., France, Russia, Germany and other European countries.

SECTION 3 :—Effects of the Industrial Revolution

(1) *Economic Effects.* (1) Large Scale Production ; (2) Increase in the National Income ; (3) Improvement in the standard of living (4) Increase in Population ; (5) Big Factories and Industrial Towns ; (6) Growth in Agriculture ; (7) Development of Banking ; (8) National and International Markets.

(2) *Social Effects.* (1) Disappearance of small Farmers ; (2) Unsatisfactory Condition of Factory Workers ; (3) Exploitation of Women and Children , (4) Insanitary conditions in Towns ; (5) Moral Downfall of the Society ; (6) Two Classes of Society ; (7) Unemployment.

(3) *Political Effects.* (1) England became a dominant Power ; (2) Nationalism and Internationalism ; (3) Rise of Capitalism ; (4) Need for Factory Reforms ; (5) Need for Parliamentary Reforms ; (6) The Chartist Movement ; (7) Search for New Colonies ; (8) Political Ideas.

(4) *Cultural Effects.* It gave impetus to cultural activities.

University and other Important Questions

1. State briefly the effects of the Industrial Revolution on World History. (A.I. Ex.-Sec. 1966)

2. What do you mean by the Industrial Revolution? What were its causes and effects? (A.I. Hr. Sec. 1968)

3. Explain the meaning of the Industrial Revolution. What were its effects on the social and economic life of England.

(Multi-Purpose Hr -Sec. 1969)

4. What problems arose as a result of the Industrial Revolution in England? (C.B.S.E. 1970)

5. What were the harmful effects of the Industrial Revolution?

[C.B.S.E. 1970 (Comp)]

6. What do you understand by the Industrial Revolution? Discuss three of its important consequences. (C.B.S.E. 1972)

7. What were the main features of the Industrial Revolution in England? How did it affect India? (B.U. 1958)

8. Briefly describe the Industrial Revolution in England and discuss its consequences. (B.U. 1960, 70)

9. Examine the connection between the Industrial Revolution in Europe and the Colonial Imperialism of the 19th century. (B.U. 1961)

10. Mention the various changes and developments involved in the Industrial Revolution. Describe the consequences it brought about for human life and world history. (B.U. 1962)

11. How does the Industrial Revolution differ from other revolutions in history? State its permanent effects on the modern world. (B.U. 1965)

12. Review the causes and consequences of the Industrial Revolution in England (B.U. 1967)

13. "Industrial Revolution marks an important landmark in the story of mankind". Explain (B.U. 1972)

14. "Industrial Revolution solved some important problems but gave rise to others". Discuss.

15. Write short notes on the following :-

(1) Causes of the Industrial Revolution in England.

(2) Results of the Industrial Revolution. (B.U. 1965, 69)

(3) Industrial Revolution and Colonial Imperialism.

(4) Revolution in the Textile Industry.

(5) Revolution in the means of transport.

16. Fill in the Blanks :-

(1) First railway engine was invented by

(2) Hargreaves invented

(3) Arkwright's Water Frameworked with

(4) Davy invented

(5) First steam engine was invented by

17. Answer in 'Yes' or 'No' :-

(1) The Industrial Revolution started in France first of all.

(2) Stephenson constructed hard and strong roads.

(3) Jenny invented the Spinning Jenny.

(4) Cartwright invented the Cotton Gin.

(5) First canal was constructed by Brindley.

18. Name the inventors of the following :—

(1) Flying Shuttle ; (2) Spinning Jenny ; (3) Power Loom ; (4) Steam engine ; (5) Safety Lamp ; (6) Telegraph ; (7) Telephone ; (8) Steam-boat ; (9) Railways ; (10) Motor car.

19. Which inventions took place in the following years :—

1733, 1766, 1775, 1783, 1793 and 1815 A.D.

Rise and Growth of Colonial Empires

SECTION 1—MEANING AND CAUSES OF THE RISE OF COLONIAL EMPIRES

1. **Meaning of Colonial Imperialism.** The word imperialism comes from the Latin word '*imperium*', meaning power. So imperialism means to obtain power of carving out colonies in other countries. It was the domination and exploitation of backward countries by highly advanced industrial countries. According to **Hayes**, "*The desire and policy of civilized nations to rule over the weak or backward peoples is called imperialism.*" To quote **Charles A. Beard**, '*Imperialism is employment of the engines of the government and diplomacy to acquire territories, protectorates and spheres of influence occupied usually by other races or peoples, and to promote industrial, trade and investment opportunities.*' Under imperialism the colonies remained under the control and administration of the mother country which exploited their economic resources for her own selfish interests. In the 19th century England, France, Belgium, Holland, U.S.A., etc. were the most powerful imperialistic countries which brought various parts of Africa and Asia under their domination and carved out their colonial empires. This growth of the powerful nations into empires led to the growth of imperialism.

2. **Causes of the Rise of Colonial Empires** The discovery of new lands at the end of the 15th century encouraged rivalry among different European nations for colonial and commercial expansion. Soon Spain, Portugal, Holland, England and France set-up their colonial empires in Africa and Asia. The Industrial Revolution further gave new impetus for the creation of colonial empires. The imperialism which rose in the 19th century was more powerful and aggressive than the ancient and medieval types of imperialism. The following causes were responsible for the rise and development of colonial imperialism :—

(1) **Geographical Discoveries** The discovery of new lands led to colonial imperialism. Spain set-up her colonies in Central and South America after its discovery by Columbus. The discovery of India by Vasco-de-Gama enabled Portugal to establish her colonies in India. She was followed by other European nations such as the Dutch, the English and the French. The explorations of Livingstone,

Stanley and Merchand led to the establishment of European colonies in Africa in the 19th century.

(2) *Economic Motive.* The countries of America, Africa and Asia were rich in natural resources but they were weak politically. The European countries found unlimited prospects for the expansion of their trade and commerce because gold, silver, precious metals, minerals and forest-resources were available there. They wanted to exploit their wealth and natural resources to amass wealth and build up their fortunes. Hence the economic motive proved a strong motive-force for the colonial expansion.

(3) *Need for Raw Material.* The Industrial Revolution also encouraged colonial imperialism. With the development of industries in various European countries, there started a competition among them for the sale of their goods. To compete with other nations it was necessary to decrease the cost of production. It was only possible if they could get raw material at cheap rates, so the industrial countries were forced to set-up colonies on other continents in order to get raw material at cheaper rates.

(4) *Need for New Markets.* The Industrial Revolution led to the production of goods on a large scale. The home markets could not consume all the goods, manufactured in their factories. The Industrial countries felt a need of new markets to dispose of their surplus goods. After the Napoleonic wars England lost many markets in Europe and again many other European countries also made tremendous progress in the field of industries. So they tried to establish their colonies in order to sell their goods in their colonies unhampered by other nations. So they turned their attention to America, Africa and Asia for establishing new markets. The British East India Company used the Indian market to its advantage and ultimately succeeded in laying the foundation of British colonial empire in India.

(5) *Surplus Capital.* With the development of industries, trade and commerce the capitalists amassed wealth and became very rich. They wanted to invest their surplus capital to earn more money. So the industrial countries set up colonies, where their merchants could invest their surplus capital and make huge profits. Many Britishers invested their surplus money in India in different fields, such, as in railways, shipping and mining etc. during the British Rule in India and earned larger profits than they could have even imagined in England.

(6) *Increase in Population.* Increase in population also forced many countries to expand their colonial empire, so that their surplus population could be migrated there. England migrated many Englishmen to her colonies in Canada, Australia and South Africa, etc. Similarly Japan conquered various territories from China and set up a puppet state of Manchuku between 1931 and 1937 A.D. to find an outlet for her increasing population. The

pressure of ever increasing population also forced Germany to set-up her colonial Empire.

(7) *Good and Strategic Places.* The colonial powers felt the need of naval and military basis for the protection of their colonial empires. This motive compelled the English to conquer Malta, Gibraltar, Aden and Singapore, etc. France also captured Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia for the same reason. They controlled these places for the purpose of their national defence.

(8) *Rise of Nationalism.* Rise of nationalism also led to colonial imperialism. The spirit of national prestige and the desire to win name, fame and glory also proved a potent force for empire building. Because of the rise of nationalism many imperialistic countries of Europe thought that the European civilization was superior to other civilizations of the world. Their national pride made them consider it their right to gain control of under-developed places and to bring western culture and civilization to the peoples of these lands. Consideration of national prestige forced Bismarck, the Chancellor of Germany, to acquire colonies in Africa.

(9) *Spread of Religion.* The desire of the Christian missionaries to spread their religion also played an important part in the development of modern imperialism. Christian missionaries paved the way for the establishment of British colonies in Africa. Not only



A Scene of Slave Auction

this, the bitter strife between the Protestants and Catholics also went a long way in founding European colonies abroad. The '*Pilgrim Fathers*' migrated to America and paved the way for the British colonies in America.

(10) *Weakness of the Afro-Asian Countries.* The weakness of the Afro-Asian countries also encouraged the powerful countries. The industrialized and powerful countries of the West took full advantage of their weakness. They brought them under their sway and exploited them fully for their own interests.

(11) *Slavery.* The powerful countries penetrated into Africa, enslaved the people and sold them in other countries. These slaves proved very useful to the capitalists. They not only extracted much labour out of them but also paid them the minimum. Slave trade gave great impetus to empire-building particularly in Africa.

(12) *Supply of War Necessaries.* The colonies proved a very useful source of supply for both war-material and loyal soldiers to the capitalist countries. With both these things at their disposal it was easy for them to win victories against their enemies.

SECTION 2—COLONIAL EMPIRES IN AFRICA

Upto the 18th century Africa was known as the black continent. It remained unexplored because of unhealthy climate, dense forests and vast deserts. David Livingstone and Stanley explored this continent in the later-half of the eighteenth century. Discovery of natural wealth such as gold mines, rubber, etc. led to a race among the different European countries to establish colonies in Africa and partition it among themselves. Soon a great part of Africa came under the dominance of different European countries.

1. **Colonies of Belgium.** The Belgium was the first to colonize Africa and occupy the rich *Congo Basin*. They earned huge profits from the trade of ivory, palm oil and rubber.

2. **Colonies of Portugal** Portugal captured *Angola and Mozambique*. She also grew rich at the cost of the colonies.

3. **Spanish Colonies.** The Spaniards possessed small and undeveloped parts of Africa such as *Morocco, Islands on the Guinea Coast, Reo-de-Oro*, etc.

4. **British Colonies in Africa.** The eastern part of Africa was under the domination of Germany and Portugal but the English and the French began to make preparations for war against them. It led to the partition of this part and England succeeded in occupying *Kenya*. As a result of the Treaty of Berlin in 1884-85 A.D. England secured the possession of *Gold Coast* and *Nigeria* in *West Africa*.

Cecil Rhodes played an important part in establishing British colonies in *South Africa*. The Dutch had settled in *South Africa* and

these settlers came to be known as 'Boers'. Cecil Rhodes helped England in occupying *Bechuanaland*, *Rhodesia* and *Nyasaland*. The English got *Cape Colony*, the southern tip of Africa from the Dutch after the Napoleonic wars. The Dutch had still three states of Orange Free State, Transvaal and Natal with them. The English first of all captured *Natal* and they tried to occupy the other two states also. The conflict between the two led to two Boers' Wars. The Boers put up a strong resistance but failed. The English were thus successful in taking possession of the other two Dutch states, i.e., *Orange Free State* and *Transvaal*. With the consent of these states England united them to form a federation in 1910 A.D. which came to be known as the '*Union of South Africa*' which was comprised of Cape Colony, Natal, Orange Free State and Transvaal. A little later, Self-Government within the British Empire was granted to them.



The Sultan of *Egypt* set up the Suez Canal Company with the help of France and constructed the Suez Canal in 1858 A.D. Egypt owned half of the canal shares, but the British Prime Minister, Lord

Disraeli, soon purchased the shares of the canal owned by the Sultan of Egypt. This resulted in the joint control of the canal by England and France. The Egyptians rose against the Europeans in 1882 A.D. under the leadership of Arabi-Pasha. This revolt was, however, soon crushed by the English alone as France refused to co-operate. The English occupied Egypt and the Sultan became only a nominal head. Egypt remained under the British domination upto 1922 A.D.

Sudan was the southern province of Egypt. It also rose against the English in 1898 A.D. But this revolt ended in failure and Sudan passed under the control of the English.

5. French Colonies in Africa. The French also tried to set-up their colonies in Africa. Their efforts to occupy Mississippi Valley failed due to the resistance of the English but they succeeded in capturing *Algeria* in 1830 A.D. They occupied Egypt also but lost it to England later on. Then, French succeeded to bring *Tunisia*, *Senegal*, *Morocco* and the *Sahara Region* in North Africa under their sway. Other French possessions in Africa included *French-Congo*, *Madagascar*, *Colonies in West Africa* and *Somaliland*.

6 German Colonies in Africa. The development of industries in Germany in the later half of the 19th century made it necessary for her to seek new markets for her surplus capital and new sources of raw material. The result was that between the years 1884 to 1890 Germany acquired a considerable part of Africa including *Togoland*, the *Cameroons*, *German South-West Africa* and *German East Africa*. Germany, however, lost these colonies after her defeat in the First World War.

7 Italian Colonies in Africa. The Italians succeeded in establishing their colonies in *Eritarea*, *Somaliland* in the east and *Libya* in the north.

Thus, the Europeans established their colonies in the whole of Africa in the 19th century. They exploited their natural resources and wealth for their personal interests and earned huge profits from slave trade also. They used to imprison the original inhabitants and sell them in other countries

SECTION 3—IMPERIALISM IN ASIA

The Europeans also established their colonies in various parts of Asia to get raw material and to find markets for their surplus goods. The political weakness and instability of the Asian countries facilitated their exploitation by them.

1. India. India was discovered by a Portuguese explorer named Vaco-de-Gama in 1498 A.D. Thus the Portuguese first of all established their settlements in India. They were followed by the Dutch, the English and the French. The Portuguese domination

came to an end by the end of the 16th century though they occupied Goa, Damnan and Diu upto the 20th century. The Dutch failed to establish an empire in India. Then there ensued a struggle between the English and the French East Indian Companies for supremacy in India. After the three Carnatic Wars, the English succeeded in uprooting the French.

The English under the command of Lord Clive succeeded in winning the Battle of Plassey in 1757 A.D. and occupied Bengal. They also won the Battle of Buxar in 1764 A.D. and occupied Bihar and Orissa along with Bengal. They gave a crushing blow to the power of the Marathas and the Nawab of Mysore after the four Maratha and four Mysore Wars. They conquered Sind in 1843 A.D. and the Punjab in 1849 A.D. By 1856 A.D., the English brought almost the whole of India under their sway. The British Governors-Generals like Warren Hastings, Lord Wellesley and Lord Dalhousie rendered useful service in carving out the British Empire in India by following a policy of political expansion.

The English followed a policy of political oppression and economic exploitation of the Indians. Naturally there was a great resentment and discontentment in India against the British Rule. It gave rise to the Revolt of 1857 A.D. The English crushed this uprising with a heavy hand. After this, the British Crown took over the political control of India from the East India Company.

2 South-East Asia. The English did not allow the Dutch to establish their sway in India. So the latter turned their attention towards the East Indies or Indonesia comprising of the islands of Jawa, Sumatra, Borneo, Bali, etc. They took advantage of the Anglo-French struggle for supremacy in India and captured the East Indies along with Ceylon by the beginning of the 19th century.

The English occupied Singapore, an important naval base in 1840 A.D. The English took an advantage of the political weakness of Burma and waged wars against her rulers. They succeeded in annexing lower Burma in 1852 A.D. and the remaining part of her in 1885 A.D. England acquired the *Malaya Peninsula* also and set-up the Federal Malaya States in 1898 A.D. under the British Protection.

France also tried to set up her colonial empire in Asia. She captured *Cochin China*, *Cambodia* and *Annam*. They were federated together in 1887 A.D. to form the Indo-Chinese Union dominated by France. France occupied *Laos* also in 1893 A.D. France, however, granted them independence in 1950 A.D.

3 China China also fell a prey to European imperialism. The European nations and Japan took advantage of the political instability and weakness of the Manchu rulers of China and followed a policy of political expansion and economic exploitation. The European merchants resented the attitude of the Chinese officials. On the other hand, the Chinese also refused to have diplomatic ties

with European nations. The British merchants began to smuggle opium to build-up their trade. As a result, there ensued a war between the two countries in 1839 A.D. It was known as the *First Opium War* (1839—1842 A.D.). The British defeated the Chinese and by the Treaty of Nanking in 1842 A.D. they acquired the port of *Hongkong, Canton, Shanghai* and then other ports were thrown open to European traders. It helped the Europeans to gain a firm footing in China.

The Chinese insulted the British flag and murdered a French missionary. This led to the *Second Opium War* (1856-1860 A.D.). After her defeat the Chinese opened six more ports to Europeans and allowed the European merchants to travel freely in China.

Japan also followed an imperialistic policy towards China. She defeated China in 1895 A.D. and occupied Korea and Formosa. The Chinese defeats greatly exposed her weakness, so she became a prey to many other countries. *Russia* captured Port Arthur and a large part of Manchuria. *Germany* acquired Kiaochow in 1897 A.D. while *France* took possession of Kwang-Chow in 1898 A.D. *England* seized Wei-Hai-Wei.

In 1900 A.D., China was in a miserable plight. Two-thirds of her was under the control of the foreigners. Each nation had its own sphere of influence. The foreigners were free from Chinese laws who exploited her natural wealth to their advantage. At this stage *U.S.A.* also jumped into the arena and advocated the *Open Door Policy*. According to this policy all nations wanted to have equal facilities to trade with China. Britain supported *U.S.A.* and so China was made open for every country. In this way China was saved from further exploitation and total dismemberment.

The Chinese, however, started a national movement known as 'Boxer Movement' in 1900 A.D. against the foreign domination. It was crushed with a heavy hand by the Europeans and China failed to free herself from the yoke of foreign countries.

4. **Central Asia.** In the later-half of the 19th century, *Russia* also tried to set-up her colonial empire in Asia and by 1870 A.D. she succeeded in occupying Tashkand, Samarkand, Bokhara and Khokand in Central Asia. She also made efforts to bring Iran and Afghanistan under her influence but failed in her designs on account of the British opposition.

SECTION 4—IMPERIALISM IN AUSTRALIA AND NEWZEALAND

Australia was discovered by an English Mariner James Cook. At first England sent her convicts there. Seeing the rich natural

resources of Australia, she stopped the transportation of the criminals and took interest in establishing her colonies in Australia. Australia consisted of six states. By the middle of the 19th century the British government granted them responsible self-government. They were federated in a single unit and it came to be known as the Commonwealth of Australia.



James Cook

New Zealand was also discovered by James Cook. England established their sway over it in 1839. A.D. Responsible self government was granted to her along with Australia and later on she was federated with Australia in 1910-11 A.D. and formed a part of the Commonwealth of Nations.

SECTION 5—EXPANSION OF EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM

The geographical discoveries, the Renaissance, the Industrial Revolution and the spirit of nationalism compelled the European nations to establish their Colonial empires in other parts of the world

1 British Colonies Early efforts of the English to create colonial empires failed. However, during the 17th century, they succeeded in establishing 13 Colonies in America. Their policy of political domination and economic exploitation resulted in the loss of these colonies in 1783 A.D. They established East India Company to carry on trade in India but ultimately they succeeded in carving out a large colonial empire in India. They seized Canada from France in 1763 A.D. after her defeat in the Seven Years' War. They also annexed New Zealand and Australia. They captured Kenya in East Africa, Gold Coast and Nigeria in West Africa, Egypt and Sudan in North Africa and a large part of South Africa. In this way they got the lion's share in the partition of Africa which took place among the European nations. They secured Burma, Hong-kong, Malaya, Ceylon, etc. in South East Asia. In short, the English acquired a world-wide empire by the end of the 19th century.

2. French Colonies — France also established a vast colonial empire in Africa and South-East Asia in the 19th century. France occupied Algeria, Tunisia, Senegal, Morocco and Somaliland in North Africa, Upper Nigeria, Ivory Coast in Western Africa and Madagascar in South Africa. France also carved out some colonies in India including Chander Nagar, Pondicherry, Karikal, Mahi. She also established her domination over Indo-China in Asia.

3. **Colonies of Spain.** Spain was the pioneer in the field of colonization in the new world. After the discovery of *America* by Columbus, she captured *Cuba*, *Hispainola* and *Jamaica*. Later on, she annexed *Florida*, *Mexico*, *Peru*, *Bolivia*, *Chile*, *Argentina* and *Peraguay*. This vast colonial empire brought immense wealth to Spain.

4. **Portuguese Colonies.** The discovery of India by Vasco-de-Gama led to Portuguese settlement in *India* at Goa, Daman and Diu. They established their colonies at Malacca, Ormuz (Persian Gulf), and Macao in China (in 1511 A.D.). They seized Brazil in *America* and Angola in *Africa*. They gave a lead to the European countries in this respect but did not succeed in establishing a vast colonial empire of their own.

5. **Colonies of Holland.** Formerly Holland was under the domination of Spain. After gaining her freedom she also entered into a race for colonial empire. The Dutch established their first colony known as New Netherland in North *America* in 1623 A.D. They occupied *Indonesia* in Asia. They brought *Ceylon* also under their control but later on they surrendered it to the English.

6. **German Colonies.** Germany did not lag behind and after the development of her industries she also joined the race for empire-building and carved out a colonial empire in *Africa* comprising of Togoland, Cameroon, German West Africa and German East Africa, etc.

7. **Russian Colonies.** Russia also established her colonies in Asia by capturing Balkan territories, Tashkand, Samarkand, Bokhara, Khiva, etc. She also set-up her colonies in *Persia*, *Siberia*, *Manchuria*, etc. Later on England and Russia divided their spheres of influences in Iran and Afghanistan.

SECTION 6—EFFECTS OF COLONIALISM OR GOOD AND EVIL CONSEQUENCES OF IMPERIALISM

Imperialism or colonization of different countries by powerful nations had a far reaching effect on both the conquered and the imperialistic countries:—

(1) *Material Progress of the Backward Countries.* The imperialistic countries took many steps which led to the material progress of the backward countries. Jungles were cleared. Means of transport were improved. Roads, canals and bridges were constructed and new factories were opened. The Asian and African countries learnt much from the imperialist countries in economic and other spheres. Industries were set-up, railways were built and banking was introduced to improve the general condition of the people materially.

(2) *Spread of Education.* In order to have clerks in their offices at low wages the imperialist countries opened schools, colleges

and universities, where the native people could receive education. This step, however, went a long way in spreading education among the illiterate masses inhabiting the backward lands of Asia and Africa.

(3) *Spread of Culture.* Imperialism also proved an important factor in civilizing the backward people. Europeans had developed an advanced civilization and culture. As a result of contact with the foreigners the civilization of these backward countries also made a great progress. They got rid of many out-dated customs and traditions. They learnt much about democracy and progressive ideas of the west.

(4) *Rise and Development of Nationalism.* The imperialist countries exploited the people of the colonies and committed ruthless atrocities upon them. They suppressed and oppressed them in every possible way. They cared little for their feelings and sentiments. This created the spirit of nationalism among the educated people of the colonies. They made up their mind to free themselves from the foreign yoke. The foreign powers had to yield before the upsurge of national movements of the 20th century. They were forced to grant freedom to the people who were under their domination for a long time.

(5) *Experience in Scientific Administration.* The foreign rule was responsible for introducing scientific administration in the colonies. The people of these colonies gained much administrative experience under the foreign rulers and later on when they became free they faced no difficulty in running the administration of their countries.

(6) *Increase in the Wealth and Power of the European Countries.* The European countries got raw material at cheap rates from their colonies and at the same time the colonies served as markets for them to sell their goods. As a result, they became richer and powerful. Whenever they were at war with any other country they acquired wealth as well soldiers from their colonies.

(7) *Economic Exploitation of the Colonies.* The imperialist countries, forced by their own selfish motives, generally exploited their colonies. They always thought of advancing their own interests rather than those of the colonies. They mercilessly exploited the colonies. They imposed a great many restrictions on their trade and industry. They took recourse to cruelty, violence, injustice and immoral ways to safeguard their personal interests. They imported raw material from their colonies and ruined their industries, and trade. As a result, the subject countries became poorer and poorer while the imperialist countries became richer and richer. To quote **John Conard** "*In many cases the motive for empire building have been selfish and the people living in the colonies have frequently been exploited for the benefit of the mother-country.*"

(8) *Cruelty on Colonies.* The people of Africa were very cruelly treated by the imperialist forces. They not only ruled them but also enslaved them, thus the foreigners became the masters while the sons and daughters of the soil became slaves. They not only imprisoned and enslaved them but also sold them in other countries where they led a very miserable and wretched life.

(9) *Loss of Culture.* The imperialist countries tried to ruin the original civilization and culture of the conquered people and impose their own civilization and culture upon them. Thus what was good of the native culture and civilization was also gone before the brutal axe of the conqueror.

(10) *Loss of Morality.* The imperialist countries brought disaster, poverty and moral degradation in their colonies. They followed the policy of divide and rule to prolong their rule in the colonies. They encouraged enmity among the natives people, sowed the seeds of discontent and hatred in them and made them fight among themselves over trifles. Thus imperialism led to the loss of moral valués.

(11) *Forced Conversion.* Wherever the European imperialists went, the missionaries followed them. They used all the fair and unfair means to exploit the people of the colonies and forced them to embrace Christianity.

(12) *Too Many Wars.* The desire for empire building proved the main cause of international rivalries and wars. The race for markets became so keen among the imperialist countries that it led to a number of wars among them. It was the colonial rivalry between Germany and England which mainly led to the First World War.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

1. Meaning and Causes of the Rise of Colonial Empires. The desire and policy of the powerful nations to rule over the weak and the backward people, is called imperialism.

Causes of the Rise of Colonial Empires. (1) Geographical discoveries. (2) Economic Motive, (3) Need for new markets, (5) Surplus capital, (6) Increase in population, (7) Good and strategic Places; (8) Rise of Nationalism; (9) Spread of Religion, (10) Weakness of Afro-Asian Countries; (11) Slavery, (12) Supply of war necessities

2. Colonial Empires in Africa Exploration by Livingstone and Stanley and then her Partition: (1) Colonies of Belgium, (2) Colonies of Portugal, (3) Spanish colonies; (4) Colonies of England; (5) French colonies in Africa; (6) Colonies of Germany, (7) Italian colonies in Africa.

3. Imperialism in Asia (1) Conquest of India by England , (2) English, French and Dutch Colonies in South-East Asia ; (3) Sphere of influences of various European countries and Japan in China ; (4) Russian domination in Central Asia.

4. Imperialism in Australia and New Zealand. Their exploration by Captain Cook, English established their domination over them.

5. Expansion of European Imperialism. (1) British Colonies in America, Canada, New Zealand and Australia, India and South-East Asia , (2) French Colonies in Africa, South East Asia and India ; (3) Colonies of Spain in America , (4) Portuguese Colonies in India, America and Africa , (5) Colonies of Holland in North America and East Indies ; (6) German Colonies in Africa , (7) Russian Colonies in Asia

6. Effects of Colonialism (1) Material Progress of Backward Countries ; (2) Spread of Education ; (3) Spread of Culture ; (4) Rise of nationalism ; (5) Experience in Scientific Administration ; (6) Increase in Wealth and Power , (7) Economic Exploitation ; (8) Cruelty on Colonies ; (9) Loss of Culture ; (10) Loss of Morality ; (11) Forced Conversions , (12) Too many wars.

University and other Important Questions

- 1 Explain how the colonial powers entered and captured Africa.
2. Trace the growth of Colonial Empire in Asia
3. Describe the rise of Colonial Empire in India.
4. What led to the rise and growth of colonial Empires (D.B,S E 1971)
- 5 Explain the term 'Modern Imperialism, and estimate its effects on Asia and Africa during the 19th Century. (B U 1965)
- 6 Trace the growth of Imperialism in the 19th century and explain how far it was responsible for the First World War. (B U 1958)
7. Examine the connection between the Industrial Revolution in Europe and the colonial Imperialism of the 19th century (B U 1961)
8. Describe the system of exploitation of China by the European powers in modern times, and mention the consequences of it. (B U 1963)
- 9 Write short notes on the following —
 - (1) Meaning of Imperialism
 - (2) Three good Effects of Imperialism
 - (3) Three bad effects of Imperialism.
 - (4) Boxer Uprising. (B U. 1958)
 - (5) Scramble for Africa in the 19th century. (B U. 1964)
 - (6) Partition of Africa. (B.U. 1967)

10. Fill in the Blanks .

- (1) . . . was the first European navigator to discover India.
- (2) America was discovered by.. ...
- (3) Majority of the British colonies in Africa lay inAfrica.
- (4) . . . trade attracted the Europeans first of all in Africa.

11 Name the following '—

- (1) Navigator who discovered America
- (2) Explorer who discovered Australia..... ...
- (3) Person who helped much in establishing British colonies in south Africa

12. Write in 'Yes' or 'No'.

- (1) Germany had her colonies in Egypt and Sudan.
 - (2) Transvaal is famous for its gold mines,
 - (3) Slave-trade encouraged colonialism in Africa.
 - (4) Most of the French colonies lay in South Africa.
 - (5) The French came to India first of all
-

Rise and Growth of Nationalism in Europe

SECTION 1—MEANING OF NATIONALISM AND CAUSES OF ITS RISE IN EUROPE

1 Meaning of Nationalism The words, '*nation*' and '*nationality*' are derived from the Latin word '*Natus*' which means a 'race'. Devotion, love and patriotic feelings for one's own nation is called 'Nationalism'. It is a feeling of political consciousness and unity among the people of a state. It implies patriotic sentiment and feeling which makes a person willing to sacrifice his life for the sake of his country. It implies the rights of the people of a country to lead an independent life and freedom from foreign domination. It stands for independence and political sovereignty of national states. Various factors such as common race, language, religion, common history and traditions, common aims and aspirations, common joys and sorrows, etc. give rise to nationalism. All these factors may not be present in a state, still some of them may lead to the growth of national feelings. The people of a country may have different religions, races, languages, etc. but the spirit of nationalism keeps them united. A 'Nation' has thus been defined as "*a body of people who feel themselves to be actually linked together by certain affinities which are so strong and real for them that they can live happily together, are dissatisfied when disunited and cannot tolerate subjection to peoples who do not share these ties*". The feeling of oneness or of nationalism is purely subjective and emotional.

2 Factors which gave rise to Nationalism in Europe Nationalism provides one of the greatest forces in Europe in the 19th century. The following factors were responsible for the rise of nationalism in Europe. —

(1) *Decline of Feudalism.* Feudal lords were very powerful and wealthy during the Middle Ages. They harassed the common people and men took up arms against their rulers. They soon carved out their small states in their country. They were a great tumbling bloc in the way of the rise of the national feelings among the people. Many of them died in mutual warfare. Various sections of the society also combined together to strengthen the hands of

the king to suppress these barons. The invention of gun-powder and the rise of the middle class—also strengthened the hands of the kings. The crusades also impoverished the barons. Without the destruction of the nobility the cause of nationalism might have been greatly suffered.

(2) *Weakness of Papacy and the Holy Roman Empire.* In the Middle Ages the Church and the Holy Roman Emperor enjoyed an exalted position and commanded a great power. The different states of Europe were considered as a part of the Christian Commonwealth and the Pope and the Roman Emperor were considered its religious and political heads respectively. There was no independent national state and no independent national church. But the Renaissance and Reformation movements led to awakening among the people and weakened the authority of the Pope and the Holy Roman Emperor. Consequently, national churches and national states were established in many countries.

(3) *Wars.* Sometimes the wars also infused the spirit of nationalism. The Hundred Years' War between England and France gave rise to national feelings both in France and England. It roused nationalism among the people of both the countries in the face of a common foe.

(4) *Foreign Rule.* In certain countries foreign rule also played an important part in the growth of nationalism. The foreign rule imposed its own ideas and institutions on the people and exploited them both politically and economically. Not only this, the foreign rulers suppressed them cruelly and mercilessly. But all this led to reaction and united the people against the foreign rule and infused the spirit of nationalism in them to free themselves from the foreign yoke. English rule in India welded the people of India into one nation against the alien rule.

(5) *Geographical Factor.* Geographical factor also helped a lot in the rise of nationalism. National boundaries of a country surely create the feeling of political consciousness and oneness among the people. For example, England is bounded by sea on all the sides. It facilitated the rise of the feelings of unity and nationalism among the English.

(6) *Reaction against Injustice.* Reaction against injustice also leads to nationalism. The Vienna Settlement after the Napoleonic Wars tried to suppress the forces of revolution and nationalism in Europe. Despotic rule was established in France again and various deposed princes were restored to their old states. But soon there started a reaction against the arbitrary rule and the people of the subjected countries started national movements for their independence.

(7) *Contribution of Great Writers.* Many writers, poets, statesmen, politicians and philosophers, etc. also made valuable contribution to the growth of nationalism. Machiavelli had been rightly called the

father of modern nationalism. The writings of J.S. Mill, Fichte, Mazzini, Garibaldi etc. went a long way in rousing political consciousness and national spirit among the people.

SECTION 2—RISE OF NATIONALISM IN EUROPE

Like democracy, nationalism became a vital force in Europe. The revolutionary ideas of Liberty, Equality and Fraternity took hold of the minds of the people after the French Revolution and many nations of Europe, who were suffering under bondage, started national movements for their freedom. The Vienna Settlement of 1815, in a way, marks the advent of nationalism in Europe.

The Vienna Settlement Napoleon was completely defeated in 1815 A.D. in the Battle of Waterloo. His wars had created many knotty problems for the European diplomats. So a Congress of the representatives of various European countries was held in Vienna in 1815 A.D. to administer the vast empire of Napoleon, to reshape the map of Europe and to suppress the important elements of the revolution. No doubt, the House of Bourbon was restored in France. Poland was divided among Russia, Prussia and Austria. Many deposed princes were restored to their old states, especially in Spain and Naples. The Catholic Belgium was handed over to Protestant Holland. Norway was annexed to Sweden much against the wishes of the people. Germany wanted national unity but was formed into a loose confederation of 39 states. A large part of Italy was also annexed by various European countries and Austria increased her influence considerably in Italy. In short, despotic rule was established in most of the states. But the seeds of liberalism and nationalism sown by the Revolution could not be crushed for a long time. Soon there started a action against the arbitrary rule of different European states and the people of the subjugated states started national movements to regain their independence.

1. Spain According to the Vienna Settlement the old rule of the Bourbon dynasty was restored in Spain. Ferdinand VII set up an independent despotic rule there. But the soldiers of the Spanish army revolted against this arbitrary rule in 1820 A.D. and the people also joined them. Ferdinand VII agreed to give them a liberal constitution. But with the help of the French Army he succeeded in establishing his despotic rule again in 1822 A.D. The July Revolution of 1830, however, infused a new life and spirit in the liberals of Spain. They started a nation-wide movement against the autocratic rule of Ferdinand VII. He, for the time being, crushed the movement by force. The liberals, however, did not feel disheartened and by and by they increased their strength. In the election of 1834 A.D. their efforts bore fruit and they got majority in the legislature. They demanded reforms in the administration. Ferdinand had no alternative but to give them a liberal constitution. Thus they succeeded in establishing a constitutional government in Spain.

2. Belgium. By the Settlement of Vienna, Belgium was annexed to Holland so that a powerful state could be set-up in the north east borders of France. This union was unnatural and therefore, it lasted only for 15 years. The people of both these countries differed in language and religion. The people of Belgium were Catholics while those of Holland were mainly Protestants. The people of Belgium were manufacturers while the Dutch were agriculturists and wanted a free trade. Practically all the officials in the government machinery were the Dutch. Heavy taxes were imposed on Belgium which ruined her trade and commerce. The people of Belgium suffered untold miseries so there was a great discontentment among them against this unnatural union between the two countries which had nothing in common. Their demand for a separate constitution was refused by King William. The July Revolution of 1830 raised the spirit of the Belgians. They rose in revolt and fought for three days with the royal troops sent to suppress them and proclaimed their independence on November 10, 1830 A.D. The Prime Minister of England, Lord Palmerston, had sympathy with Belgium. He summoned a conference of important European countries in London in 1831 A.D. In this conference England, France, Russia, Prussia and Austria recognized the independence of Belgium.

3 Poland. The Vienna Congress divided the kingdom of Poland among Austria, Russia and Prussia. The Czar of Russia, Alexander I, carved out an independent kingdom of Poland and himself became its ruler. He granted various concessions to the Poles but they were not satisfied and wanted to regain their freedom from the foreign rule. After the death of Czar, his brother Nicholas I became the Czar of Russia in 1825 A.D. He was reactionary and an arbitrary ruler. So, being inspired by the July Revolution of 1830, the Poles raised a standard revolt. Though the people of France, England and Germany had sympathies with the Poles yet they rendered them no material help to regain their independence. Consequently the Russian army smashed their movement ruthlessly. Similarly, the revolt of the Poles in 1848 A.D., was also crushed with an iron hand. The accession of Alexander II, in 1855 A.D. aroused the hopes of the Poles, and they revolted in 1863 A.D. No European country came forward to help the Poles and they were badly defeated. Poles never revolted again to claim their freedom.

4. Austria. Austria was a powerful state of Europe in 1815 A.D. and its emperor Ferdinand I was an arbitrary and reactionary ruler. His chancellor Metternich was also reactionary and conservative. He supported absolute monarchy. He opposed all liberal and revolutionary movements in Europe. He was hostile to nationalism as it would tear apart the Austrian Empire which was composed of many nations. There was a great political unrest in Austria and the Revolution of 1848 added fuel to the fire and the people raised a standard of revolt against the autocratic rule and reactionary policy of Metternich. The revolutionaries marched towards the Palace of Metternich and raised the slogan, "*Down with*

Metternich " He was so much alarmed that he ran away to England. Emperor Ferdinand I was also terrified. He set-up a liberal ministry, abolished restrictions imposed on the press, granted freedom of speech and writing and many other concessions. But the liberals were not satisfied. So he slipped away from Austria. There was a rift among the revolutionaries and so the Emperor was invited to come back. Emperor's return infuriated the revolutionaries and consequently he had to leave his country once again. But the troops were still loyal to the king. So they crushed the revolutionaries and brought back the Emperor once again. The defeat of the rebels helped him to follow a reactionary policy once again. With the passage of time the revolutionary movement, however, gained impetus and Emperor Joseph was forced to grant liberal constitution in 1867 A.D.

5. **Democracy in France.** After the exile of Napoleon to the island of St. Helena in 1815 A.D., Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVI was installed on the throne of France and with his accession the Bourbon dynasty was restored in France. He was hostile to democracy and was the champion of the despotic rule but circumstances compelled him to adopt the middle path and follow the policy of compromise. He issued a constitutional charter and granted a certain amount of liberty to his people. The extremists were not satisfied and they started a movement known as the '*White Terror*'. They murdered many liberals. In 1820 A.D., Duck De Barry, the legal heir to the throne was also put to death. Louis XVIII also died in 1824 A.D.

After the death of Louis XVIII, his brother *Charles X* (1824—1830 A.D.) became the emperor of France in 1824 A.D. He was a reactionary and an arbitrary ruler. He was the well-wisher of the nobles, higher clergy, the old regime and the old social order. He imposed restrictions on the press and freedom of speech. He favoured the cause of the Catholic Religion. He issued four ordinances in July, 1830 A.D. and deprived the people of their liberty. His reactionary policy, however, led to July Revolution of 1830. There started a civil war between the revolutionaries and the government troops in July, 1830 A.D. It continued for three days. Charles tried to compromise with the revolutionaries but he failed. He declared his grandson Louis Philippe, the king of France and fled away to England.

Louis Philippe (1830—1848 A.D.) was accepted as the king of France because he was a man of liberal ideas and he favoured the constitutional form of government. There was chaos and disorder from 1830 to 1840 A.D. because of frequent changes in the ministry. A ministry under the leadership of Guizot, however, worked from 1840 to 1848 A.D. He introduced many reforms. Franchise was made liberal. He ensured individual liberty to the people. Special efforts were made to promote trade, industry, arts and crafts. A Factory Act was passed to better the lot of the working class. He also followed a policy of religious tolerance and equality.

Ministerial instability, however, helped Louis Philippe to establish his arbitrary rule. With the passage of time his government became arbitrary and he began to sacrifice the national interests at the altar of his personal interests and selfishness. He began to look to the interests of the capitalists and ignored the welfare of the agriculturists and the working class. His policy soon created discontentment among the people and opposition against him increased day by day. Ultimately, it led to the Revolution of 1848 A.D. Louis dismissed Guizot but the mob stormed his palace. The police opened fire in which 20 persons died. The mob marched towards the palace of the king carrying dead bodies to excite the people. They were raising the slogan "*Long live the Revolution. Down with Louis.*" Seeing the situation turning against him Louis fled away to England.



A Scene of the Revolution of 1848 A.D.

After the Revolution of 1848 A.D. a *Republic* was proclaimed in France for the second time. *Louis Napoleon*, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, was elected as the President of the Second Republic. He was a man of an ordinary intellect but the word 'Napoleon' attached to his name worked like a magic. He began to enhance his powers and popularity and make efforts to become an autocrat. In 1851, Napoleon was elected the President of France for 10 years. In fact, he now became all in all. By the new constitution of 1852 A.D. he became the emperor of France and thus the Second Republic was transformed into the Second Empire in 1852 A.D.

Louis Napoleon, however, tried to perform many works for public welfare and establish a liberal rule in France. Special efforts were made to improve the condition of the poor and the working class. However, his weak foreign policy failed badly in Mexico and Poland. He allowed Prussia to become a powerful country at the

cost of France and consequently Prussia humiliated France in 1870—71 A.D. As a result of this defeat a civil war broke out in France which resulted in a lot of bloodshed. Ultimately the Third Republic was established in France on August 31, 1871 under the presidency of Thiers.

6 The Balkan States Turkey had dominated Europe since good old days. In 1453 A.D., the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople and established a powerful empire in South East Europe. Most of the Balkan states between the Black Sea and the Adriatic Sea also came under their control. The majority of the people of the Balkan states were, however, Christians. The Muslims who were the ruling class oppressed them in many ways. But by the beginning of the 19th century the Turkish Empire became very weak and came to be known as the '*Sick man of Europe*'. This encouraged the Balkan people who were mostly Christians. The French Revolution and the Napoleonic wars inspired the feelings of nationalism among them and they clamoured for independence. At the same time there was a clash of interests among the big powers in the Balkans. Russia wanted to control the Black Sea but England could not tolerate it. On the other hand Austria wanted to expand her empire by annexing the Balkan territories. Thus this knotty problem of the Balkan states, or the so-called '*Eastern Question*' gave birth to many wars.

The Greeks, in order to cast off the slavery of the Sultan of Turkey, first of all revolted in 1821 A.D. At many places the Christians were brutally killed in large number which completely shook the whole of Europe. In such a state of affairs, England, France and Russia helped the Greeks in 1827 A.D. to defeat the Sultan and forced him to sign the Treaty of Adrianople in 1829 A.D. Turkey was thus forced to grant independence to Greece. Serbia also secured self-rule.

Between 1841 and 1852 A.D., there was peace in the Turkish Empire. In 1854 A.D. when Russia captured Moldavia and Wallachia on the bank of the Danube, war broke out between the two. It was called the Crimean War in which England, France and Italy helped Turkey to check the rising power of Russia. Consequently, Russia was defeated and war came to an end by the Treaty of Paris in 1856 A.D. The rising power of Russia was thus checked. But Moldavia and Wallachia got self-rule. They joined together in 1862 to form an independent state of *Rumania*. Serbia also secured total independence in 1867 A.D.

A little later the Christians of *Bosnia and Herzegovina* revolted against the cruel rule of the Sultan in 1875 A.D. People of *Bulgaria* also joined them. Turkey suppressed this revolt so severely that there was an uproar against her in Europe. When none of the European countries was ready to take up the cause of the Christians, Russia came forward for their help and she declared war against the Sultan of Turkey in 1877 A.D. The Sultan was defeated.

and forced to sign the *Treaty of San Stefano*. The Sultan recognized the independence of Serbia and Rumania. A new state of Bulgaria was created. This treaty gave a great blow to the Turkish power and Russia gained many facilities in the Black Sea. England, Prussia and Austria were against this treaty so they put a pressure on Russia. Consequently the terms of the treaty of San Stefano were revised by the Congress of Berlin in 1878 A.D. This Congress of Berlin recognized the independent states of Serbia, Rumania and Montenegro. Russia got some parts of Asia Minor. England got Cyprus. Austria was allowed to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina but she was not allowed to annex them.

In 1908 A.D., a revolution broke out in Turkey against the inefficient and corrupt rule of the Sultan. Bulgaria declared her independence. Austria also seized Bosnia and Herzegovina. Albania got self rule in 1912 A.D. So we see that the national spirit inspired the people of the Balkan lands during the 19th century and they freed themselves one by one from the foreign rule of Turkey.

SECTION 3—THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY

Italy which was once the leader of the Renaissance became a very weak and powerless state in the 16th century. Foreign invaders took advantage of Italy's weakness and invaded it during the Middle Ages. With the passage of time Italy lost its unity and broke up into many small states which went under foreign domination. Napoleon conquered many parts of Italy and formed a 'Kingdom of Italy' under the domination of France. He established a uniform system of administration, and in this he indirectly paved the way for her unification. But nationalism and liberalism received a death blow at the hands of the leaders of the Vienna Congress in 1815 A.D. and Italy was once again divided into small states and the old rulers were restored to their respective thrones. Rome and adjoining territories were placed under the charge of the Pope. Tuscany, Parma and Modena were restored to the Hapsburg princes. The kingdoms of Sicily and Naples were restored to Ferdinand-I of Sardinia. Genoa was annexed to the King of Piedmont. Lombardy and Venetia were handed over to Austria. Thus Italy was rendered to a mere 'geographical expression'. The system of government in all these states was reactionary and the influence of Austria was predominant.

Under these circumstances the patriots of Italy such as Mazzini, Garibaldi and Cavour girded up their loins to complete the task of the unification of Italy and in the long run they succeeded in achieving their aim. The story of the unification of Italy can be divided into five stages :—

1. **First stage** The Vienna Settlement produced many problems and difficulties for the patriots of Italy and the reactionary

and autocratic rule that was established in Italy proved a great hurdle in the way of the unification of Italy. But slowly and slowly the circumstances began to change in favour of the unification of Italy.



(1) *Carbonari Revolt* The patriots of Italy set-up several societies to regain their independence. The most important secret society was known as the 'Carbonari'. Traders, soldiers, labourers and government servants were the members of this society. In 1820 A.D. the members of the Carbonari raised a standard of revolt in Piedmont and Naples. But because of the intervention of the Austrian Chancellor Metternich these liberal movements were crushed forcibly.

(2) *July Revolution of 1830.* The July Revolution of 1830 in France also deeply influenced the other countries of Europe. There were revolts in the Papal States, as well as in Parma and Modena in Italy. Austria again crushed the revolutionary movements and inflicted severe punishments upon the revolutionaries.

They were killed in large numbers. Thousands of them were forced to take shelter in foreign countries.

(3) *Young Italy*. Mazzini took a leading part in the National Movement of Italy. In 1832 A.D., he founded a new party known as '*Young Italy*'. Its motto was, "*God, People and Italy*". He wanted to create awakening among the people through education and wanted to achieve unity and independence. He believed in working secretly. He did not like to seek foreign help. Through his party he roused the feeling of patriotism and infused new life in the youngmen of Italy. Mazzini created a mental revolution among the people and encouraged the youngmen to uproot the foreign rule. He has been rightly called the founder and forerunner of Italian nationalism.

(4) *Effect of the Revolution of 1848 A.D.* Being inspired by the French Revolution of 1848 A.D. the patriots of Italy launched a national movement in Milan, the capital of Lombardy. Charles Albert, the ruler of Piedmont, supported the revolutionaries. He attacked Lombardy and chased away the Austrian army. A Republic was also set up in Venetia. There was a revolt against the Pope in Rome and a Republic was established there. But Albert was defeated by the Austrian army at the battles of Custoza and Navora. So Austria was once again able to establish its domination over Lombardy and old reactionary rule was also restored in Tuscany and Venetia. Albert abdicated his throne in favour of his son Victor Emmanuel who later on became the leader of the movement for the unification of Italy.

(5) *Efforts of Cavour*. Cavour (1810-1891) a citizen of Turin in Piedmont was another patriot of Italy who played a significant and praise worthy role for the independence and unification of Italy. He wanted to complete this work of the unification of Italy under the leadership of the ruler of Piedmont. He became the Prime Minister of Piedmont in 1852 A.D. He introduced various reforms to improve the economic condition of the people of Piedmont. He then organized a large, strong and disciplined army. He thus made Piedmont a powerful and progressive state so that other states of Italy might accept her leadership.

Cavour was both a patriot and an able diplomat. He was a realist and not an idealist like Mazzini. He believed that unification of Italy could not be brought about without outside help. He wanted to secure a powerful ally to achieve his aim. He got a golden chance of securing a foreign ally when the Crimean War broke out in 1854 A.D. In this war England and France were compelled to help the Sultan of Turkey against Russia. Cavour sent 15,000 soldiers to help England and France against Russia. Consequently the latter was defeated and a conference was held in Paris to settle the terms of the Treaty of Paris. Cavour took part in this conference. He declared that the problem of Italy was not local but an international one and it was difficult to maintain peace

in Europe without the unification of Italy. It was a master stroke of his policy because it raised the status of Italy. Not only this she also won the sympathy of England and France. It has been rightly remarked, "*The Crimean war Was a landmark in the history of Italian independence and unification.*" Again it is said, "*Out of the mud of Crimea new Italy was made.*"

Because of Italy's help in the Crimean War, the French Emperor Napoleon III became a strong supporter of nationalism in Italy. He had a secret meeting with Cavour at Plombiers on July 20, 1858 A D where he entered into an agreement with him. It was decided that the French armies would help Piedmont to drive away Austria from Lombardy and Venetia and she would get Savoy and Nice in return. After this Cavour sent his troops on the borders of Lombardy to provoke Austria. Austria also amassed troops on her borders and sent an ultimatum to Piedmont to call back her troops. When Cavour rejected it, Austria sent her troops into Piedmont on April 19, 1859 A D. Cavour was much pleased at this and he at once remarked, "*The die is cast and we have made history.*" As promised Napoleon sent his army to support Cavour. Consequently Austria was defeated in the battles of Magenta and Solferino and Piedmont soon seized Lombardy. At this stage Napoleon deserted Piedmont, met the Austrian Emperor secretly and concluded a treaty with him. After this treaty France removed her troops from the battlefield. Thus deserted Piedmont could not carry on the war with Austria single-handed. She concluded the Treaty of Zurich in (1859 A D) with Austria whereby Piedmont received Lombardy while Austria still retained Venetia. With the acquisition of Lombardy was completed the first stage of the unification of Italy.

2. Second Stage Being encouraged by the victories of Piedmont the people of Modena, Parma and Tuscany revolted against their arbitrary rulers and forced them to leave their kingdoms. Pope's authority was also overthrown in Romagna. The rebels set-up interim governments and declared to have union with Piedmont. England supported them. Lord Palmerston said, "*The people of the Duchies have as much right to change their sovereign as the English people or the French.*" Plebiscite was held in 1860 A D. and the central Duchies (i.e., Modena, Parma, Tuscany, Romagna etc.) decided to have a union with Piedmont and they were annexed to her. Napoleon III tried to fish in the troubled waters but he was calmed down by offering him Savoy and Nice as was agreed to during the Plombiers talks between Cavour and Napoleon III (in 1858 A D.) Thus the Northern and Central Italian territories were united together and a federal government was set-up there under the leadership of King Victor Emmanuel.

3 Third Stage. Garibaldi (1807-62), another patriot of Italy also played an important part in the unification of Italy. He



Garibaldi

was a brave, courageous and dauntless person. He used force for the unification of Italy. He first of all attacked Sicily with a group of 1,000 soldiers in 1860 A.D. His followers are known as 'The Thousand' or the 'Red Shirts' in history. Garibaldi succeeded in capturing Sicily. Then in the same year (i.e. 1860 A.D.), he attacked Naples. Its ruler fled away and consequently Garibaldi was successful in seizing Naples also.

After these victories and successes Garibaldi's position became very strong and he began to make

plans to attack Pope also. Cavour feared that Garibaldi might establish a republic in the south after the conquest of Rome. So Cavour himself attacked the Papal States of Umbria and Marches in 1860 A.D. and conquered them.

Though Garibaldi was a staunch supporter of the Republic, yet he was a true patriot. He, himself, handed over Sicily and Naples to King Victor Emmanuel. Thus all Italy except Venetia and Rome was united and in 1861 A.D. came into being the Kingdom of Italy. Cavour wanted to conquer Rome and Venetia also to complete the work of the unification of Italy. He used to say, "*Without Rome there was no Italy*". But he could not complete this task as he died on June 6, 1865. No doubt he was the chief architect of the unity of Italy. It has been rightly said, "*He carried the task of unifying Italy and establishing a liberal government to such a point that others could continue it and complete it*".

4 Fourth Stage The annexation of Venetia and Rome was essential to complete the task of the unification of Italy. Victor Emmanuel got a chance to annex Venetia in 1866 A.D. when Prussia waged a war against Austria. Italy stood by Prussia during the Austro-Prussian War. When Prussia defeated Austria in the battle of Sadowa in June, 1866 A.D., Italy got Venetia as a prize. Thus Italy got rid of the foreign domination.

5 Fifth Stage. Without the conquest of Rome the task of the unification of Italy was incomplete. To quote **Hayes**, "*Italy*

without Rome was much like a body without its heart " This task was, however, difficult because the French armies were still in Rome to help Pope. King Victor Emmanuel got a chance to conquer Rome in 1870 A.D., when a war broke out between France and Prussia. As a result of this war Napoleon had to call back his soldiers from Italy. King Victor Emmanuel took the best advantage of this situation and captured Rome in no time. Rome was annexed to Italy after a plebiscite. In this way the work of unification of Italy was completed in 1870 A.D. with Rome as its capital.

From the above account it is clear that Mazzini, Garibaldi, Cavour and Victor Emmanuel played an important role in the unification of Italy. Mazzini symbolized the soul of Italy, Cavour its mind, Garibaldi its sharp sword and Victor Emmanuel its body.

Mazzini's moral force, Garibaldi's sword, Cavour's diplomacy and Victor Emmanuel's wisdom were responsible for the independence of Italy and the creation of a unified national state of Italy in 1870 A.D. It is rightly said, "*Mazzini, Garibaldi, Cavour and Victor Emmanuel are the four great figures in the victorious birth of a great nation, from out of mere geographical expression* "

SECTION 5—UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Germany was in a very bad shape at the time of the French Revolution. She was divided into a number of small states, each under a despot. These tiny states of Germany were under the domination of Austria and were controlled by the Holy Roman Emperor. Napoleon badly defeated Austria in 1805 A.D. This defeat ended the supremacy of the Holy Emperor over Germany. Napoleon combined all the German states to make the famous confederation of the Rhine. Thus Napoleon paved the way for unity of Germany.

1. **The Vienna Settlement and Germany.** The Vienna Settlement changed Germany into a confederation of 39 states. A Federal Diet/Parliament was established there. The Emperor of Austria was to act as its president. The members of the Diet were not elected by the people but they were nominated by the rulers of the component states. This settlement, however, did not satisfy the patriots of Germany. The students, teachers of Jena University formed a secret committee named *Brüderchen Shaft* to preach nationalism in Germany. The students of this university arranged a great function in 1817 A.D. at Wartberg. The people took a Russian newsman for an Austrian spy and killed him. Metternich, the Austrian Chancellor, thus got a chance to interfere and to crush the spirit of liberalism.

2. **Repression of Liberals by Metternich.** Prussia was the most powerful state of Germany. The emperor Frederick William II was expected to lead the forces of liberalism in Germany but

Metternich used him to crush the liberals. Many laws, known as 'Carlsbad Decrees' were passed to put a curb on the press and to suppress the liberties of the people. The secret councils were declared illegal. Liberal teachers were thrown out of universities. Students were debarred to form unions. Censor was enforced on press and papers. Special powers were given to police to crush revolutionary ideas. Thus the reactionary policies of Metternich succeeded and he was able to suppress nationalism and liberalism in Germany.

3. Economic Unification of Germany In Germany, the economic unification preceded the political unification. There the different states had different regulations for trade. They could not establish trade relations among themselves. Terminal taxes used to be realized at the tax posts on the borders of every new state. Prussia gave a lead to put an end to this confusion in 1819 A.D. She formed an economic union with her 12 neighbouring states. It was known as the Zollverein. According to this pact, free trade began among these 12 states and the terminal tax was abolished. Gradually, other states except Austria and Hanover joined this union by 1834 A.D. This economic unity of Germany paved the way for the political unity later on. Encouraged by this unity the patriots of Germany began to work for national unity. They however, succeeded in the end.

4 Effects of the Revolution of 1830 A.D. The French Revolution of 1830 A.D. also deeply influenced the German states. The people of Hanover, Hesse, Saxony, etc in the north and those of Bavaria and Wurttemberg in the south rose in revolt against their rulers and forced them to establish constitutional rule in their states. Metternich, however, could not tolerate these liberal movements. He rendered every possible help to the rulers. Consequently, many patriots and nationalists were severely punished. Thousands of them were put behind the bars and many were exiled. Then Metternich forced the rulers of various states to put an end to the constitutional rule. Thus, the reactionary policies of Metternich succeeded once again.

5 Effects of the Revolution of 1848 A.D. As a result of the French Revolution of 1848 A.D., a revolution also took place in Austria. Finding the circumstances quite against him Metternich fled away to England. The success of the Revolution in Austria led to revolts in many states of Germany. The rulers of various states including Prussia, granted liberal rule to their states. But the Prussian ruler, Frederick William IV, refused to go any further. He belied the hopes of the nationalists and refused to become the Emperor of unified Germany because he was afraid of the power of Austria and was not ready to invite Austrian enmity by accepting this offer. At the same time he thought it below his dignity to accept crown from the revolutionaries. The failure of the liberals resulted in the re-establishment of the despotic rule in the German states once again.

6 William I and Germany Frederick William IV of Prussia died in 1861 A.D. and he was succeeded by his brother William I.

He had a firm belief that Germany could be unified only under the Prussian leadership and that the Prussian fate depended on her army. He favoured a strong army for Prussia to achieve the unification of Germany. To quote him, "*Diplomacy without arms is music without instruments*". As he wanted to organise the military might of Prussia, he wanted money to fulfil his desire but the legislature did not sanction it. At this he decided to resign. In 1862 A.D., he, however, appointed Bismarck as his Prime Minister. He assured the king that he would put his plans into action even in the face of the opposition in the Assembly. He said, "*I will rather perish with the king than forsake your majesty in the contest with parliamentary government*". William I was very much impressed by Bismarck. He tore off his resignation and decided to work on his plan.

7. Bismarck's Policy Bismarck favoured unlimited monarchy. He did not believe in the constitutional rule. He followed a policy of "*Blood and Iron*". He used to say, "*The German problems cannot be solved by parliamentary decrees but only by blood and iron*". He wanted that Prussia should assume the leadership of Germany for her unification. He desired to set up a strong army to achieve this goal. He believed that unity could be achieved only through a war. To quote him, "*Not by speeches and resolutions of the majorities are the great questions of the day to be decided, but by blood and iron*".



Bismarck

The Lower House did not sanction the money to increase the military might while the Upper House favoured the king. Taking the consent of the Upper House as legal, Bismarck collected funds through taxes, expanded the army and made it stronger day by day. Then he followed a policy of war to achieve the unification of Germany.

(1) **War against Denmark, 1864 A.D.** Bismarck picked up a quarrel with Denmark over the question of the control of two Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. With the help of Austria he declared a war against Denmark in 1864 A.D. Denmark was defeated and by the Treaty of Vienna in 1864 A.D. Prussia and Austria got a joint control of these Duchies. A treaty was signed between Austria and Prussia in 1865 A.D., according to which Schleswig went to Prussia and Holstein to Austria.

(2) **The Austro-Prussian War, 1866 A.D.** Bismarck wanted to complete the unification of Germany by ousting Austria from Germany. But he feared the intervention of big powers. Through his diplomacy, he succeeded in depriving Austria of any help from other

powers including England, Russia and France. Then he accused that Austria was not ruling Holstein well and thus was violating the Treaty of 1865 A.D. Soon he moved his army to take control of Holstein. At this Austria declared war against Prussia in 1866 A.D. A fierce battle was fought at Sadowa on July 3, 1866 A.D. in which Austria was defeated and she lost more than 40,000 soldiers. The war came to an end by the Treaty of Prague. To quote Hazen, "*It, i.e., the Austro-Prussian War proved to be one of the shortest wars in history, one of the most decisive and one whose consequences were most important*". According to the Treaty of Prague, Austria was to withdraw from Germany once for all. Then the states north of the river Main, were grouped into a union and were outrightly annexed to Prussia. The state of Venetia was given to Italy. Holstein was put under the control of Prussia. This victory enhanced the international prestige of Prussia and her military power was acknowledged by the whole of Europe. The task of the unification of the German states, north of the Main was completed by this war.

(3) *Franco-Prussian War, 1870-71 A.D.* A war with France became inevitable for the unification of Germany. Even Bismarck had begun to say that a "*war with France lay in the logic of history.*" So over the question of Hohenzollen candidature to the throne of Spain, he picked up a quarrel with Napoleon III of France.

Prussia declared war against France on July 15, 1870 A.D. and invaded France with the help of the South German States. No European Power came forward to help France. France had to suffer many defeats. Napoleon was badly defeated at Sedan. He was forced to surrender and was arrested. He himself sent a word, "*The army has been defeated and is captive. I myself am a prisoner.*"

The war came to an end by the Treaty of Frankfurt signed on May 10, 1871 A.D. By this treaty, France had to surrender two of her richest provinces, i.e., Alsace and Lorraine to Prussia. The South German states had sided with Prussia during this war. Now these states themselves agreed to join the union. Thus the task of the German unification was completed on January 18, 1871 A.D. when a German Empire came into existence. With this, the task of the unification of Germany was completed.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

1. Meaning of Nationalism and Causes of its Rise in Europe

(1) *Meaning of Nationalism.* Feeling of political consciousness and oneness among the people of a state.

(2) *Factors which gave rise to Nationalism.* (1) Decline of Feudalism, (2) Weakness of Papacy and Holy Roman Empire; (3) Wars, (4) Foreign Rule; (5) Geographical Situation; (6) Reaction against Injustice, (7) Contribution of Great writers.

2. *Rise of Nationalism in Europe.* The Vienna Settlement of 1815 A.D. and efforts made therein to crush nationalism. (1) *Spain.*

Revolts in 1820 A.D. and 1830 A.D. led to the establishment of Constitutional Government. (2) *Belgium*. Union with Holland unnatural, Revolt of 1830 A.D. and independence of Belgium. (3) *Poland*. Vienna Settlement and division of Poland, Revolt of 1848 A.D. was crushed very badly. (4) *Austria*. Revolt in 1848 A.D.; re-establishment of despotic rule with the help of Prussia, Liberal Constitution in 1867 A.D. (5) *Democracy in France*. Accession of Louis XVIII in 1815 A.D., (i) His policy of middle path did not succeed; (ii) Charles X and July Revolution, (iii) Louis Philippe and Revolution of 1848 A.D. and establishment of the 2nd Republic; (v) Louis Napoleon first became the President of the 2nd Republic and then he became an Emperor, (vi) Third Republic in 1871 A.D. (6) *The Balkan Lands*. Domination of Turkey, The Greeks became independent in 1829 A.D.; Self-rule of Serbia; Crimean War and independence of Rumania and Serbia; Union of Rumania and Bulgaria in 1885 A.D.; Revolution in Turkey and its effects.

3. Unification of Italy Vienna Settlement of 1815 A.D. reduced Italy to mere geographical expression; Unification completed in five stages

(1) *First Stage*. (i) Carbonari Revolt; (ii) July Revolution of 1830 A.D. and its effects on Italy, (iii) Foundation of 'Young Italy' by Mazzini, (iv) Effects of the Revolution of 1848 A.D.; (v) Effects of Cavour, part played by him in the Crimean War and annexation of Lombardy.

(2) *Second Stage* Union of Northern and Central Italian territories (such as Modena, Parma, Tuscany and Romagna) under the leadership of Victor Emmanuel of Piedmont.

(3) *Third Stage* Important part played by Garibaldi. He captured Sicily and Naples and handed them over to King Victor Emmanuel; conquests of the Papal States of Umbria and Marches by Cavour.

(4) *Fourth Stage* War between Prussia and Austria in 1866 A.D., Annexation of Venetia by Italy.

(5) *Fifth Stage*. War between France and Prussia in 1870 A.D., Victor Emmanuel captured Rome and completed the unification of Italy.

4. The Unification of Germany. (1) Vienna Settlement established Austrian domination over Germany. (2) Repression of Liberals by Metternich. (3) Economic unification of Germany. (4) Effects of July Revolution of 1830 A.D. on Germany (5) Effects of Revolution of 1848 A.D. on Germany and Parliament of Frankfurt. (6) William I and his desire to make Prussia a powerful state (7) Bismarck's Policy of Blood and Iron; War against Denmark; The Austro-Prussian War of 1866 A.D. and unification of states, north of the river Main; Franco-Prussian War of 1870 A.D. and union of Southern States, Completion of unification of Germany in 1871 A.D.

University and other Important Questions

- 1 What factors gave rise to nation states in Europe? How far were these nation states responsible for the wars of the 18th and 19th centuries
(C.B.S.E. 1970)

2. What do you understand by nationalism? What led to its rise and growth in the 19th century Europe? (A.I. Hr. Sec. 1969)
3. To what extent is it correct to say that 19th century was the century of nationalism?
4. Do you agree that in the unification of Italy, Mazzini acted as its soul, Cavour as its sword and Emmanuel as its body?
5. Explain the meaning of nationalism and trace its growth in the 19th century. (B.U. 1960)
6. Describe the causes and consequences of the rise of nationalism in Germany and Italy. (E.U. 1964)
7. Which peoples of Europe became nations in the 19th century? Give an account of the national struggle of any one of them? (B.U. 1965)
8. Give an account of the unification of Germany in the 19th century (B.U. 1967, 69)
9. Describe the phases in which the unification of Italy was achieved. (B.U. 1971)
10. Describe the role played by Mazzini and Garibaldi in the unification and liberation of Italy.
11. Assess the part played by Bismarck in the creation of the unified German Empire.
12. Write short notes on.—
 - (1) Garibaldi (2) Mazzini (3) Cavour (4) Victor Emmanuel (5) Carbonari (6) Young Italy (7) Red Shirt (8) Zollverein (9) Franco-Prussian War of 1870 A.D. (10) Louis Philippe (11) Balkan Nationalism.
13. Mention against each name, listed in Group A, what each is associated in Group B

Group A	Group B
(1) Bismarck	Unification of Italy
(2) Garibaldi	Unification of Germany
(3) William I	Emperor of France
(4) Napoleon II	Emperor of Germany
(5) Victor Emmanuel	King of Italy
(6) Mazzini	Leader of the Red Shirts
14. Mark the right answers —
 - (1) Bismarck had faith in Revolution/in the People/Appeal for unity/military strength. ✓
 - (2) Red Shirts were an army of Russia/Germany/Italy. ✓
 - (3) The Prime Minister of Sardinia was Garibaldi/Bismarck/Metternich/Cavour. ✓
15. Give the dates of the following events —
 - (1) Napoleon III became the President of France.
 - (2) Unification of Italy. 1861
 - (3) Unification of Germany. 1871
 - (4) Zollverein
 - (5) War of Prussia against Denmark.
 - (6) Treaty of Prague. 1866

Rise and Growth of Nationalism in Asia and Africa

Various European powers established their colonial empires and spheres of influences in Asia and Africa in the 19th century. They exploited the resources of these countries for their benefit. The 20th century, however, witnessed the rising of national awakening in these countries and the colonial powers had to vacate their possessions. It has been rightly remarked that if the 19th century was for the West, the 20th century is for the East.

SECTION 1—CAUSES OF THE RISE OF NATIONALISM

The following causes were responsible for the political awakening and rise of nationalism in Asia and Africa :—

(1) *Economic Exploitation.* The imperialist countries exploited their colonial empires to develop their industries and amass huge wealth. They imported raw material from these colonies at a very low price and used them as markets to sell their manufactured goods at a higher price. They thought that the colonies only existed for the mother country. This economic exploitation kindled the fire of nationalism and patriotism among the various conquered territories.

(2) *Social Injustice.* The victors also did a great social injustice to the people of these colonies. They mal-treated them and called them the 'Blackmen'. The sons and daughters of the soil were considered as second-rate citizens in their own countries. The imperialist masters adopted an attitude of indifference towards them. They could not hold high posts and were debarred from visiting other countries. This created the feeling of resentment and later on led to the rise of national upsurge for freedom.

(3) *Influence of the West.* The spread of the western education in Asia and Africa also proved an important cause of the growth of national movements. The European imperialism brought them into contact with western culture and civilization. Soon the oriental people began to learn democratic and scientific ideas of the West and their whole outlook underwent a great change.

Some Orientals went for higher studies to the western countries and brought with them the revolutionary ideas of the West and became the leaders of the national movements in their countries. The study of English History and the American Revolution taught them how to get rid of the cruel masters. They learnt different ways of getting freedom from the national movements of the Italy and Germany. From the French Revolution they imbibed the ideas of the Liberty, Equality and Fraternity. Thus the revolutionary ideas of the West went a long way in paving the way for the rise of nationalism in different Asian and African countries.

(4) *Contribution of Great Leaders.* The masses in the colonies were generally ignorant, poor and backward. Some of the great leaders of the oriental countries awakened them from their slumber and infused in them the spirit of nationalism and patriotism through their forceful speeches and writings. They became the inspirers and torch-bearers of the national movements. They did a lot of work in raising the patriotic spirit and feeling of national consciousness among the people and prepared them for a fight against the foreign rule.

(5) *Contribution of Literature and the Press.* Literature and the press also played an important part in the rise of nationalism. In the 19th and 20th centuries a large quantity of national literature was created. It brought about a great revolution in the minds of the people and inspired them to fight against imperialism. The press also roused national awakening and political consciousness in the minds of the people and prepared them for the national struggle. The national movements, thus, gathered great momentum due to literature and the press.

(6) *Defeat of Russia by Japan.* In the 19th century the people of Asia and Africa believed in the superiority of the European powers and thought that it was difficult to defeat them. However, in 1904-05 A.D. Japan inflicted a crushing defeat on Russia. This defeat destroyed the myth of the superiority of the European powers. At the same time the Japanese carried on anti-European propaganda and raised the slogan '*Asia for Asiatics*'. This raised the morale of the people and inspired them to throw off the foreign yoke.

(7) *World Wars.* During the First World War (1914-18 A.D.) and the Second World War (1939-45 A.D.) various European powers were engaged in life and death struggle. It weakened them both politically, militarily and economically and consequently it became difficult for them to keep their colonies under their domination. Thus this mutual struggle between the imperialistic powers enabled the oriental countries to regain their independence. In fact, the destruction of the colonial powers led to the regeneration of the different countries of Asia and Africa.

SECTION 2—NATIONALISM IN ASIA PARTICULARLY IN INDIA

The Imperialistic powers established their colonies in Asia in the 19th century. In the 20th century, however, the people of the oriental countries launched freedom movements against their masters and in the end they succeeded in freeing themselves from the bondage of the foreign rule.

Nationalism in India. The English founded the East India Company in 1600 A.D. and then they came to India as traders like other European nations. By and by they expelled all other European powers and established their colonial empire in India. By 1856 A.D. the English became the sole masters of India. The English exploited the Indians economically and politically. This led to the Rising of 1857 A.D. which was, however, crushed ruthlessly by the English. The harsh attitude of the British and their unjust policy towards the Indians released the forces of national awakening in India. They started the national movement to free themselves from the foreign yoke and ultimately succeeded in gaining independence in 1947 A.D.

1. **Causes of the Rise of Nationalism in India.** The following were the chief causes of the rise of the national movement in India :—

(1) *British Imperialism.* By bringing the whole of India under their domination the English gave her a political unity which she lacked for the last so many centuries. Slowly and slowly they got the sense of oneness. In the words of Prof. Moon, "*British Imperialism in India gave her a political unity under a third party inspite of many discordant elements in Indian society.*"

(2) *English Language and Improved Means of Transport and Communication.* English language served as a lingua-franca between the people living in different parts of India and in a way created a sense of unity and national consciousness among the Indians. The improved means of transport and communication also helped the Indians to organise themselves under a common leadership and to strive for their political freedom.

(3) *Contact with European Countries.* The British rule in India brought the Indians in close contact with the European revolutionaries. The 19th century in Europe was a century of nationalism and liberalism and it had a great effect on the Indians and showed them the way to win freedom. The Western education led to political awakening in India. Lord Ronaldshay rightly observed, "*The new wine of Western learning went into the heads of the young Indians and they got intoxicated with it and their whole outlook underwent a revolution.*"

(4) *The Great Rising of 1857 A.D.* In 1857 A.D., there occurred a great rising against the British Imperialism in India. Though it was crushed ruthlessly yet the English began to dread and

hate the Indians. The Indians, on the other hand, felt much humiliated. They now realized that all their sufferings could be removed only if the English were turned out of their country.

(5) *Great Leaders of India.* A great many Indian Leaders, scholars, poets and religious reformers played an important part in the development of the Freedom Movement in India. Of all these, Raja Ram Mohan Ray, Swami Dayanand, Ravindernath Tagore, Tilak, Moti Lal Nehru, Lala Lajpat Rai, Mahatma Gandhi and Pt. Nehru contributed a lot towards the rise of nationalism in India. They inspired the people with the ideas of self-respect, self-confidence and patriotism. For instance, **Tilak** remarked, "*Swaraj is my birth right and I will have it*". It became a watchword for the revolutionaries in India and inspired them to fight against the foreign rule.

(6) *Indian Press and Literature.* In the 19th century a large quantity of national literature was created which brought about a great revolution in the minds of the Indian people. The newspapers like the '*Indian Mirror*', '*Bombay Samachar*', '*The Amrit Bazar Patrika*', '*The Hindu*', '*The Kesari*' etc. and the writings of renowned Indian writers worked a miracle in arousing political consciousness among the Indians and prepared them for the national struggle.

(7) *Economic Distress of the People.* The English followed a policy of economic exploitation in India. As a result, the Indians became poorer day by day and their miseries increased many-folds. English goods poured into India at a rapid speed and it ruined the native trade and Many Indian Cottage Industries were also ruined. Unemployment, disease and hunger became a common feature and as a result of this the people suffered heavily. The people blamed the English for their miseries and planned to get rid of them.

(8) *Repressive Policy and Racial Bitterness.* The English followed a policy of racial discrimination towards the Indians. All the high posts went to the English and the Indians, as a whole, were debarred from them. They regarded the Indians inferior to them and called them '*Black Heathens*'. Those who, like Surendra Nath Bannerjee, passed the I.C.S. Examination were not appointed at high posts like those of the English. But such a theory created bitterness among the Indians and they made up their mind to fight against the British Imperialism.

It was in these circumstances that the Indian National Congress was founded in 1885 A.D. and with that the national movement gained much momentum.

2. Course of the National Movement in India—

(1) *Origin of the Indian National Congress.* The policy of repression and racial discrimination of the English made the Indians feel the need of an all India organisation to safe-guard their interests. Consequently, Indian National Congress was founded in 1885 A.D. on the initiative of Mr. A.O. Hume, a retired British

civilian, to work for the mental, moral, social and political regeneration of India. Mr. W.C. Banerjee was its first President. Throughout the 19th century the Congress chiefly concerned itself with the criticism of the government policy and asked for various reforms.

(2) *Change in the Official Attitude.* In the beginning the British government was more or less friendly towards the Congress. But as the time passed on the Congress began to ask for more and more of reforms for which the government was not prepared, so there came a change in the official attitude. Upto 1905 A.D. the Congress was dominated by the Moderates like *Surrinder Nath Banerjee*, *Gopal Krishan Gokhale*, *Feroz Shah Mehta*, *Dadabhai Naoroji*, etc. who believed in constitutional methods of getting the grievances redressed.

(3) *Rise of the Swadeshi Movement.* There broke out a severe famine in the Deccan in 1896 A.D. To suppress the Indian nationalism Lord Curzon passed the Indian Universities Act in 1904 A.D. Again to create a rift between the Hindus and the Muslims of Bengal he effected the partition of Bengal in 1905 A.D. Against this act the Bengalis started the Swadeshi Movement on 7th August, 1905 A.D. to boycott the British goods and to use the Swadeshi articles. The Government was, later on (in 1911 A.D.) forced to cancel the partition of Bengal.

(4) *Rise of the Revolutionary Party or the Extremists.* Slowly and slowly a section of the Congress discarded the policy of following the constitutional means and began to drift towards extremism. Among the revolutionary leaders the names of *Lokmanya Tilak*, *Lala Lajpat Rai* and *Bipin Chander Pal*, etc. deserve a special mention. *Lokmanya Tilak* said, "Political rights will have to be fought for." At another occasion he also said, "If thieves enter our home, and we have not sufficient strength to drive them out, we should without hesitation, shut them up and burn them alive." Similar feelings were expressed by *Bipin Chander Pal* of Bengal, *Lala Lajpat Rai* of Punjab also preached the revolutionary ideas. As a result of their teachings a terrorist movement was launched under the leadership of famous Indian patriots like *B.K. Ghose*, *B.N. Dutt*, *Bhagat Singh*, *Chandra Shekhar Azad* and *Jatinder Nath Das*, etc. They formed secret revolutionary societies and used bombs, and other military weapons to put an end to the British imperialism in India.

(2) *Rise of the Muslim League.* The Muslim community as a whole always thought the Congress to be a Hindu body and feared it. The English also followed a policy of 'Divide and Rule' and kept the Muslims away from the Congress by giving them concessions. Such a policy led to the formation of the Muslim League in 1906 A.D. Its main aim was to ask for more and more concessions for the Muslims and demand a separate electorate. The British Government encouraged the Muslim League in its separatist policy.

(6) *Split between the Moderates and the Extremists and Policy of Government towards them.* The methods of the Extremists were

altogether different from those of the Moderates. Gradually the differences between them became irreconcilable. There was thus a complete split between the two sections at the Surat Congress session which was held in 1907 A.D.

The government followed a policy of repression towards the Extremists and at the same time it tried to please the Moderates. Leaders like Lokmanya Tilak and Lala Lajpat Rai were put behind the bars. In order to please the Moderates the British Government passed the Minto Morley Reforms in 1909 A.D. The Moderates were not, however, satisfied with these reforms because the Muslims were granted a separate electorate.

(7) *Home Rule Movement.* The Congress concluded the Lucknow Pact with the League in 1916 A.D. thereby Mr. Annie Besant and Tilak started the Home Rule Movement with the help of the League. At this moment Annie Besant said, "*India asked for this (Home Rule) before the War, India will ask for it after the war, but not as a reward, as a right does she ask for it.*" The Home Rule Movement, however, calmed down when the British Government itself declared in 1917 A.D. that it would give responsible government to India after the end of the War.

(8) *The Rowlatt Act.* Accordingly in July, 1918 A.D. was published the Montague-Chelmsford report in which the government promised to give some more share to the people of India in the administration of their country. The Extremists, however, opposed it tooth and nail. In order to face their revolutionary movement, the government passed the Rowlatt Act in 1919 A.D. It gave the government the power to detain the suspected persons without warrant and to imprison them without any trial. It was at this critical juncture that Gandhiji entered the Indian politics. Later on, after the death of Tilak in August, 1920 A.D., he became the sole guide of the Congress.

(9) *Mahatma Gandhi and the Non co-operation Movement.* Gandhiji asked the people to offer '*Satyagrah*' and observe '*hartals*' against this act. About 20,000 people gathered in the Jalianwala Bagh at Amritsar on 13th April, 1919 A.D. to protest against this Act. General Dyer ordered the soldiers to open fire. Thousands of people were killed and wounded. Soon after this Martial Law was imposed and great atrocities were committed on the people. So Gandhiji started the Non-co-operation movement in 1920 A.D. At his call many people gave up government service and renounced their medals and titles. The students left their schools and colleges and lawyers their practice. Gandhiji was, however, forced to call off this agitation as the people became violent and set fire to the police station at Chauri Chaura.

(10) *Simon Commission and Demand for Complete Independence.* In 1928 A.D. a commission, under the leadership of Sir John Simon, came to India. The Congress boycotted it and held demonstrations against it. Lala Lajpat Rai was seriously wounded in a '*Lathi-charge*' at Lahore and he subsequently died. In 1929

A.D., at the Lahore Session of the Congress under the Presidentship of Pt. Nehru declared complete Independence as the chief goal of the Indians. Consequently the 26th of January, 1930 A.D. was celebrated as the Independence Day throughout the country.

(11) *Civil Disobedience Movement.* In 1930 A.D., Gandhiji started the Civil Disobedience Movement by violating the Salt Law. Thousands of people were imprisoned. In 1931 A.D., however, Gandhiji concluded a pact with Lord Irwin and attended the Second Round Table Conference in London in 1931 A.D. but no decision could be reached in it. On returning to India, Gandhiji started the Civil Disobedience Movement once again. The British Government issued the famous *Communal Award* in 1932 A.D. and gave a separate electorate to the Harijans. Gandhiji was thus forced to undertake a fast unto death and succeeded in getting the *Poona Pact*, by which both the Harijans and the Hindus agreed to have a joint electorate. The government then passed the Government of India Act of 1935 A.D. Consequently Gandhiji called off the Disobedience Movement and tried to test the new reforms.

(12) *Formation of Congress Ministries, 1937-39 A.D.* Elections were held for the Provincial Legislatures in 1937 A.D. The Congress partly established government in 8 out of 11 provinces of India. In 1939 A.D., when the Second World War broke out and the Indian Government joined it without first consulting the Indians, the Congress Ministries gave their resignations. It led to complete political deadlock in India.

(13) *Quit India Movement, 1942 A.D.* The events now began to move at a rapid speed. At the Lahore Session (March, 1940 A.D.) of the Muslim League, its president Mr. Jinnah demanded a separate Home-land or '*Pakistan*' for the Muslims. Gandhiji started the Individual Civil Disobedience Movement in November, 1940 A.D. and asked his countrymen not to render any help to the British Government. Consequently, many Congress leaders were arrested.

The Second World War was going on in its full swing where in 1941 A.D. Japan also joined it against England and America and soon after conquering Singapore and Rangoon, She reached the eastern borders of India. Sir Stafford Cripps a member of the British Cabinet visited India in 1942 A.D. but he failed to solve the political deadlock.

Gandhiji then started the *Quit India Movement* in 1942 A.D. and asked the English to quit India and leave them alone. He along with many Congress leaders were arrested. This was followed by the repressive policy of the government and great atrocities were committed on the people. Riots broke out at many places and the agitated people set fire to many police stations, post-offices, railway stations and other government buildings. The storm of repression further fanned the fire of nationalism and patriotism.

(14) *Indian National Army.* Subhash Chandra Bose was one of the greatest patriots of India. He stepped out of India in 1941

A.D. and after travelling many countries he reached Burma. In co-operation with the Japanese Government he organised the Indian National Army out of those soldiers who had been arrested by the Japanese as prisoners of war. For a time, the I.N.A. gave a tough fight to the British forces in the Assam Hills but when Japan was forced to surrender in 1943 A.D., these freedom fighters were also over-powered by the British Army. It is believed that Subhash Chandra Bose was killed in an air crash in August, 1945 A.D.

(15) *Towards Independence.* After the Second World War, Lord Wavell, the then Viceroy of India, called a conference of the different political leaders at Simla. But the conference failed because of the stubborn attitude of the League. In 1945 A.D. Labour Party came out successful in England and it sent the *Cabinet-Mission* to India in 1946 A.D. with the aim of resolving the deadlock and to make India a free country. The Mission recommended that (1) there should be federation of India comprising both the Indian States and the Provinces of British India; (2) a Constituent Assembly should be elected to draw up the future constitution of India, and (3) till the constitution was ready an Interim Government of all the parties should be set-up at the Centre.

The election for the Constituent Assembly were held in 1946 A.D. The Congress bagged 211 seats out of 296. The Muslim League boycotted it and there were communal riots in different parts of the country. The Interim Government was also set-up at the Centre under the leadership of Jawahar Lal Nehru. In the beginning the League refused to join the ministry, but later on it joined it of its own accord. The conflict between the Congress and League; however, still continued.

(16) *The Independence Act of 1947 A.D. and the Partition of India.* On 20th January, 1947 A.D., the British Government made an important announcement. It declared that the British would leave India by a date not later than June, 1948 A.D. In March, 1947 A.D. Lord Mountbatten became the Viceroy of India. He tried to resolve the deadlock that existed between the Congress and the League but when he failed to patch up the differences between them he made an important announcement on 3rd June, 1947 A.D. regarding the partition of the country.

On the basis of Lord Mountbatten's declaration, the British Parliament passed the Indian Independence Act in July, 1947 A.D. Consequently, on 15th August, 1947 A.D. the British authority in India came to an end and the country was partitioned into two parts, i.e., the India and the Pakistan. Thus came to an end the long drawn fight of Indian Freedom.

SECTION 3—RISE OF CHINA

After the overthrow of the Ming rulers, China remained under the rule of the Manchu Emperors from 1664 A.D. to the next 250

years. In the 19th century the European nations began to come to China. The Western nations, like the Portuguese, the British, the French, the Germans, the Russians and later on the Americans took advantage of China's weakness as a sea-power and began to gain concessions for themselves. The Chinese did not wish to trade with other nations but the Europeans forced them to do so because they wanted to sell their goods in China. The English smuggled opium into China against the wishes of the Chinese. This led to *First Opium War* between the two in 1839 A.D. China was defeated and she was compelled to pay damages, to give the island of Hong Kong to the British. Canton, Shanghai and three other Chinese ports were also opened to the Europeans, who acquired firm footing in China. As a result of the *Second Opium War* (1856-60 A.D.) many more ports were opened to the European traders. The Europeans were given right to travel throughout China and Christian missionaries were allowed to carry on their religious conversion.

As Japan became a powerful nation, she also entered into the race for colonial power. She attacked China and defeated her. As a result of this victory Japan annexed Korea, Formosa and some ports of Manchuria. France, Germany and Russia, etc. intervened and checked Japan from capturing the whole of China. As a reward for their services France got Indo-China, Russia secured Port Arthur, Germany acquired the Kiau Chau Port and England got the Wei-Hai-Wei Port. In this way China was divided into spheres of influence among the European powers.

America also wanted market in China for her goods, so she also paid attention to China. She proclaimed an 'Open-Door Policy' and wanted that equal facilities should be given to all nations to carry an trade with China. It was accepted by all European powers in 1899 A.D.

Thus China began to be exploited by different European and Asian powers. But slowly and slowly there started a movement against this exploitation, which is as follows :—

(1) *The Boxers' Rebellion, 1900 A.D.* China was economically exploited so much by the European imperialists that she grew poorer day by day. Ultimately, this exploitation brought about national awakening in China. The contact of the younger generation with the West kindled the fire of nationalism and created political consciousness among them. Secret Societies were organised in China to maintain unity and integrity of the motherland. The Boxers attacked Christian Churches, murdered missionaries, killed Chinese Christians and looted and destroyed foreign shops. The situation became very grave. England, France, Russia, Germany, Japan and U S A. joined hands and their armed forces crushed this rebellion ruthlessly. China was forced to sign the Treaty of Peking, by which she had to accept humiliating terms.

(2) *Establishment of Democracy in China.* Though the Boxers' Rebellion failed to achieve its objective, it gave a great impetus to

nationalism in China. The Chinese were lucky enough to secure the services of an able leader named Dr. Sun Yat Sen who has been rightly called the 'Father of New China'. He was born in 1876 A.D. and took his medical degree from Hong Kong in 1891 A.D. He devoted his life to the service of his country. He organised the secret organisation called '*Chinese Revival Society*'. He infused the feelings of nationalism and patriotism in the youngmen and prepared them for the national struggle. He led a revolt against the despotic rule of the Manchu Dynasty in 1905 A.D. The revolt failed and Sun-Yat Sen had to leave his country and take shelter in foreign land.

He returned to China in 1911 A.D. He organised his political party once again and now named it as '*Kuomintong*', i.e., the Peoples National Party. He revolted against the Manchu ruler and compelled him to abdicate on February 12, 1912 A.D. After overthrowing the Manchu rule he set-up the Democratic Republican Government and became its first President.

(3) *Nationalist Government of Canton under Sun-Yat-Sen.* After the fall of the Manchu Dynasty there started a civil war in China and there prevailed a great chaos and anarchy everywhere. General Yuan Shih Kai himself wanted to become the emperor of China. In order to maintain the unity and integrity of his motherland Sun-Yat-Sen shifted to Canton with his followers and set-up his national government there. Thus in 1921 A.D. there were established two rival republics in China—one under General Yuan at Peking and the other at Canton under the Presidentship of Sun-Yat-Sen.

The Policy of Sun-Yat-Sen had three main objectives, (1) to free China from foreign domination, (2) to establish democracy in China and (3) to improve the economic and social conditions of the Chinese. He had firm faith in nationalism, sovereignty of the people and socialism. It has been rightly said, "*His ideology was nationalist, anti-dynastic, anti-monarchical and republican.*"

In order to give a practical shape to his policy he had to face so many difficulties. He had no money to carry out his plans. The people were illiterate and the foreign powers did not like to see the end of their influence in China. At this critical juncture he sought help from Russia. Russia was ready to render every help to him provided he encouraged Communism in China. Sun-Yat-Sen agreed to it and made a Russian economist, Bourdon his adviser. With the co-operation of the Russian advisers the '*Kuomintong*' was reorganised on the lines of the Russian Communist Party. About the same time the Chinese Communist Party was founded and among its first members were Mao-Tse-Tung and Chou-En-Lai.

(4) *Reforms of Sun-Yat-Sen.* Russia returned all the Chinese territories occupied by her and promised to help China against other European powers. Sun-Yat-Sen introduced many reforms to improve the condition of the country. He fixed the wages and the working hours of the workmen. Education was made compulsory.

Agriculture-taxes were reduced. A military academy was established to give military training to the soldiers on scientific lines.

Sun-Yat-Sen succeeded in displacing General Yuan in 1924 A.D. when he became President of the whole of China. He died in 1925 A.D. He was a true nationalist and patriot-par-excellence. He freed his country from the despotic rule and left no stone unturned to make it happy and prosperous. It is said, "*As Confucius had become the sage of ancient China, so did Sun-Yat-Sen inherit the role in the 20th century China.*"

(5) *Chiang-Kai-Shek*. After the death of Sun-Yat-Sen his trusted follower and Commander of the army, Chiang-Kai-Shek succeeded him. He over-threw the Peking government and himself became the President of China. On July 6, 1928 A.D. Nanking was made the capital of the new government. Chiang-Kai-Shek was the avowed enemy of the Communists. He decided to get rid of them. The Russian advisers were all sent back to Moscow. Many Communist leaders were imprisoned and a large number of them were put to death. Mao-Tsi-Tung and Chou-En-Lai were, however, fortunate to escape. Thus Chiang-Kai-Shek established a Nationalist Government in China.

But Chiang's government failed to improve the political and economic condition of China. The condition of the peasants was no better than before. The rich became richer. The government officials were corrupt and lazy. The western nations kept most of their concessions. The poverty of the Chinese proved fatal for the popularity of Chiang-Kai-Shek and Communism, once again began to gain firm ground in China.

(6) *China-Japan War*. Japan took an advantage of the strife between the Nationalists and the Communists. She invaded China and seized Manchuria in 1931 A.D.

(7) *Spread of Communism*. The Chinese were very much impressed by the honesty, devotion, selflessness and sacrificing spirit of the Communists. So Communism became very popular in China. Mao-Tsi-Tung and Chou-En-Lai reorganised the Communist Party. In August, 1945 A.D. Japan had to surrender to the Allies and consequently China was freed from the foreign rule. There was no fear of foreign invasion now. At the same time, Mao-Tsi-Tung, the dictator of the Communist Party preached the ideology of Sun-Yat-Sen. Hence this party became very popular and powerful in China.

A civil war broke out in China in 1947 A.D. between Chiang Kai-Shek and the Communists. Chiang-Kai-Shek was helped by the Americans while Russia backed the Communists. By 1949 A.D. the whole of China was captured by the Communists and Chiang-Kai-Shek escaped to Formosa where he set-up the Nationalist Government. The Communists then set-up the People's Republic in China under the *Presidentship of Mao-Tsi-Tung*. Chou-En-Lai became the Prime-Minister. China had made wonderful progress

through her Five Years Plans and she has become a very powerful country of the world. Formerly Nationalist China was a permanent member of the Security Council but now this seat has been allotted to the Communist China.

SECTION 4—NATIONALISM IN JAPAN

The story of the rise of Japan is a remarkable one. The Japanese are a very ancient nation but were cut off from the western world. The Dutch and the Portuguese missionaries gained entry into Japan in 16th and 17th centuries to propagate Christianity. There was a strife between the Catholic and the Protestant missionaries. Consequently, Japan closed its doors for the Christian missionaries and the European merchants. Consequently Japan remained excluded from the western world upto the middle of the 19th century.

(1) *Japan's Contact with the Western World.* By the middle of the 19th century Japan was ruled by a Prime Minister who always belonged to the same powerful family and the nominal ruler had no real power. In the meantime the United States of America began to take interest in Japan as she wanted to develop trade-relations with Japan. So America sent a naval officer named Commodore Mathew C. Perry in Japan in 1853 A.D. for this purpose with four warships but he did not succeed in his mission. Next year he was again dispatched to Japan with seven warships. This time he forced Japan to sign the Treaty of Kanagawa on March 31, 1854 A.D. and gained trade concessions for America. This marked the beginning of the Japanese contact with the western world. The American Consul General in Japan named Townsend Harris signed the Treaty of Harris in 1858 A.D. by which he secured more commercial rights for America in Japan. Later on Japan concluded similar treaties with England, France, Holland and Russia.

(2) *The Meiji Era (1867-1912 A.D.).* The contact with the West made Japan realize the importance of powerful monarchy and industrialization. In 1867 A.D. an Emperor was restored to power and Emperor Mitsuhiro, a boy of 14 years of age became the ruler of Japan and enjoyed the real sovereign powers of the state. He remained in power from 1867 to 1912 A.D. His reign is known as '*Meiji Era*', or the enlightened government. A new constitution was framed and introduced in 1889 A.D. Under it the Emperor enjoyed absolute powers. He was treated as if he was a god. He took no part in ordinary affairs and was hardly even seen or heard by his people. The people were taught that the Emperor was a divine person and descended from the Sun-God. He had a council of ministers to help him and to carry on the administration. They issued all orders in the emperor's name and showed extra-ordinary respect for him. The national parliament (Diet) consisted of two Houses.

Many reforms were introduced during this period. Feudalism was abolished in 1871 A.D. Great importance was attached to education which was made compulsory for all. The system of education was based on the American System. It aimed at "*national unification, unquestioning loyalty, the acquirement of modern scientific and economic technique and the perfection of national defence.*" Special attention was given to impart vocational and military training.

Much progress was also made in the industrial sphere. Englishmen were employed to build railways and telegraphs. American planned the postal services, agricultural system and higher education. The Frenchmen trained the army and planned a new system of laws. The Germans organised the medical department. In 20 years Japan changed from being one of the most old fashioned countries to one of the most advanced countries of the world.

(3) *The Sino-Japanese War, 1894-95 A.D.* After 1868 A.D. the Japanese learnt everything possible from the Western countries. The love of the Emperor and country was used to promote a spirit of imperialism among the masses. Japan also became a war-like nation, eager to conquer and to rule the world. The Japanese leaders emphasized that Japan must expand to the main continent of Asia and into South Pacific in order to acquire necessary raw material for her industries. With this view in mind Japan invaded China in 1894 A.D. and seized Formosa.

(4) *Russo-Japanese War, 1904-05 A.D.* Japan entered into an alliance with England in 1902 A.D. It fanned her imperialistic designs. As a result there started a war between Japan and Russia in 1904 A.D. Japan defeated Russia badly and succeeded in acquiring Korea and South Manchuria.

(5) *Japan and the First World War, 1914-18 A.D.* Before the beginning of the First World War Japan developed her industries and commerce and became a first-rate power in the East. She joined the Allies in the war. Taking advantage of the pre-occupation of the Western powers in the war, she attacked China to fulfil her territorial ambitions. She inflicted a crushing defeat on China and placed her 21 demands before President Yuan of China. China also entered the war on the side of the Allies in August, 1917 A.D. Naturally the Allies, particularly U.S.A. intervened in the affairs of China, checked the imperialistic designs of Japan and maintained the territorial integrity of China and saved her from being dismembered.

(6) *Japan seized Manchuria.* In order to realize her imperial designs Japan attacked Manchuria in 1931 A.D. and captured it. She restored the rule of the old Manchu Dynasty there. The League of Nations, however, condemned this Japanese aggression but took no action to check the Japanese imperialism. Japan on her part left the League of Nations and this proved one of the chief causes of its failure.

(7) *Japan and the Second World War (1939-45 A.D.).* When the Second World War broke out in 1939 A.D. Japan sided with

Germany in opposition to the Allies. Without any cause, she attacked the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbour. Many American warships were sunk or badly damaged. The Japanese also captured British naval harbours of Hong Kong and Singapore. They attacked Burma and captured Rangoon and Mandalay. At last U.S.A. was forced to drop two Atom Bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August, 1945 A.D. which compelled Japan to surrender. For several years after the war Japan was under the control of the U.S.A. The Japanese are, however, very clever and hard-working people. They very soon repaired the damage caused by the war and made progress by leaps and bounds.

SECTION 5—NATIONALISM IN SOUTH-EAST ASIA

(1) *Indo-China*. Indo-China consists of Cambodia, Anam, Laos and Cochin China, etc. Indo-China became a part of the French Colonial Empire in 1886 A.D. France exploited it fully. She used to get rubber, coal and rice from her. The masses suffered under heavy taxation and the wages of the labourers were very low. Ho Chi-Minh organised the Communist Party and assumed the leadership of the freedom movement in Indo-China. France, however, ruthlessly crushed the national rebellion of 1930 A.D. It was occupied by Japan during the Second World War. After the defeat of Japan in 1945 A.D. Ho Chi Minh seized Hanoi and declared the independence of Indo-China. He named it as Vietnam. Ho Chi-Minh became the first President of the Republic of Vietnam. The French tried her level best to recapture it but she failed very badly. She was forced to withdraw from the Indo-China according to the Geneva Convention of 1954 A.D. But before withdrawing she granted freedom to Southern Indo-China, with its capital at Saigon. Thus Indo-China was divided into two parts—North Vietnam and South Vietnam. There was a Communist Government in North Vietnam while the government of South Vietnam was controlled by U.S.A. Ho-Chi-Minh launched a struggle to unite the two parts together. This led to a war between the two governments. It created a great crisis in Vietnam. The war, however, came to an end only in 1973 A.D. after a good deal of efforts.

2. *Burma*. Burma was an independent nation until 1885 A.D. when she was conquered by England and made a province of her Indian Empire. When the national movement gained momentum in India, Burma was separated from India in 1937 A.D. and she became a British Crown Colony. During the Second World War, she was conquered by Japan and declared independent in 1943 A.D. But Japan was defeated in 1945 A.D. and with that the British succeeded in gaining Burma once again. England wanted to make her a self-governing dominion, but the Burmese wanted to remain independent. This led to the freedom movement in Burma. At last Burma was declared an independent country in 1948 A.D.

3. **Indonesia.** Indonesia was dominated by the Dutch of Holland. The Dutch exploitation of Indonesia led to nationalist movement under the leadership of Soekarno. It was occupied by Japan in 1942 A.D. Soekarno took advantage of the defeat of Japan in 1945 A.D. and set-up an independent republican government in Indonesia. England recognised it. The Dutch attempted to regain control by force but they found it difficult to face the nationalist wave there. A conference of the Asian countries was called in 1948 A.D. where India strongly pleaded the case of Indonesia. At last U.N.O. intervened in this matter and the Dutch agreed to withdraw from Indonesia in 1948 A.D. After the withdrawal of the Dutch, the Republic of the United States of Indonesia was established under the Presidentship of Soekarno in 1949 A.D.

4. **Malaysia.** Malaysia, like India, was a part of the British Colonial Empire and comprised of the islands of Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak and North Borneo. It was rich in minerals and rubber and the English exploited it to the best of her interests. Like other Asian countries Malaya also witnessed the upsurge of nationalist movement in the 20th century. The Japanese took it in 1942 A.D. but it was retaken by England in 1945 A.D. In 1957 A.D. Malaya, Sabah, Sarawak and North Borneo joined together to form the Federation of Malaysia. England granted her freedom and Malaysia became an independent country in 1957 A.D. within the Commonwealth.

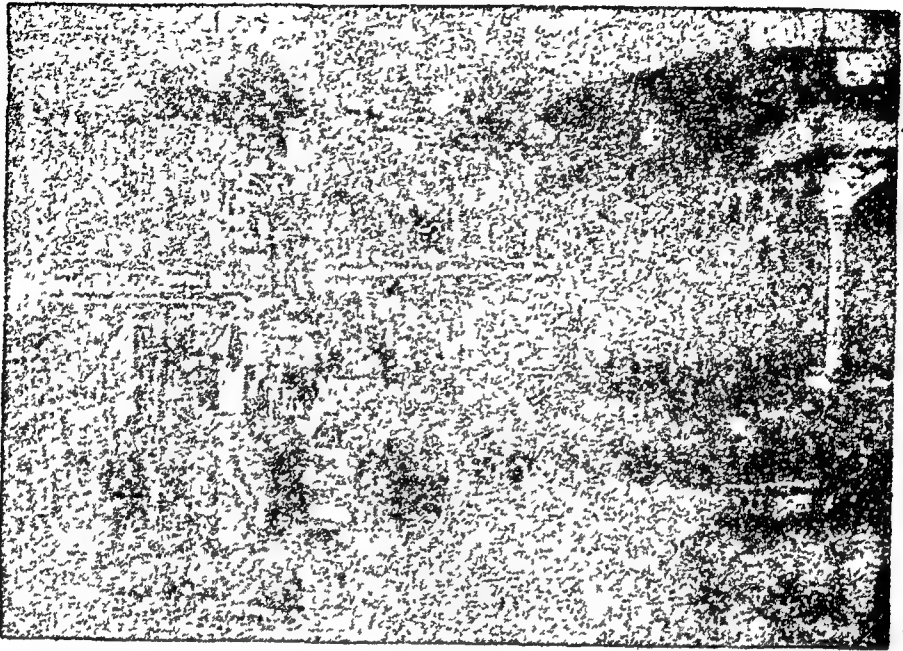
5. **Ceylon.** Ceylon was a colony of Holland. England seized it in 1802 A.D. during the Napoleonic Wars, as Holland had joined France. The national movement in India greatly influenced Ceylon and the people of Ceylon began to clamour for their independence. At last the English withdrew from Ceylon in 1947 A.D. and set her free.

6. **Philippines.** Philippines was Spanish Colony and remained under the control of Spain for more than 300 years. In 1898 A.D., after the war between the U.S.A. and Spain, this island passed under the control of America. The people of Philippines were granted self-government in 1934 A.D. These islands were also occupied by Japan in 1942 A.D. but were reconquered by the Americans at the end of 1944 A.D. America granted them complete independence in 1946 A.D. but she was allowed to maintain her military bases on these islands and to enjoy some commercial rights.

SECTION 6—AWAKENING IN WEST ASIA

1. **Turkey.** Turkey had a vast empire, but the Europeans had great influence there. The credit for national awakening in Turkey goes to Mustafa Kamal Pasha. He organised the army and established the People's Party. He raised the Slogan, "*Turkey for Turks.*" With the help of his troops he chased away Italian

forces from the Southern Turkey and the French forces from Syria. In 1921 A.D. the Greeks attacked Turkey but Kamal Pasha gave a crushing defeat to the Greeks. In 1922 A.D. a Republic was set up in Turkey and Kamal Pasha was elected as its President.



A Street Scene in Modern Turkey.

After establishing democratic government in Turkey, Kamal Pasha introduced many reforms. He made Turkey a secular state. He introduced sweeping changes in the social set-up. Women were given equal rights and full liberty. The Purdah system was discarded. He did a lot for the spread of education. Education was made compulsory upto the age of 16 years and many schools, colleges and universities were opened. He encouraged agriculture and promoted trade and commerce. So he tried his best to modernize Turkey and in this way he made her a powerful nation.

2. **Iran.** Iran is rich in oil, so both England and Russia wanted to dominate Iran. In 1900 A.D. the Sultan of Iran gave the contract of extracting oil from her wells to England. This action of the Sultan antagonised Russia. In 1907 A.D. England and Russia came to terms and divided Iran into their spheres of influence. This led to the rise of national consciousness among the people of Iran. They revolted in 1908 A.D. but it was crushed with iron hands by foreign powers. After the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D., Russia withdrew from Iran but the English continued exploiting the natural resources of Iran to their full advantage. Sardar Raza Khan launched a struggle against the English with the help of about 3,000 soldiers. This revolution went on gaining momentum and consequently Raza Khan became the Sultan of Iran under the name of Raza Shah Pehlvi. After assuming the

sovereign power he abolished feudalism, turned the foreigners out of his country and westernized Iran.

3 **Syria.** Before the First World War Syria was under the domination of the Sultan of Turkey. England, France, Russia etc. instigated the people of Syria against the Sultan of Turkey as he had joined Germany in the war against the Allies. The ruler of Mecca, Hussain, helped Syria, Arabia, Iraq and Palestine to gain freedom from the clutches of the Sultan of Turkey with the help of the Allies. According to the Treaty of 1920 A.D. the Allies divided the Arab countries among themselves. France secured Syria. Then France began to exploit Syria both economically and socially. This led to the national awakening in Syria. France tried to crush the revolutionary ideas by bombing and burning many cities but she failed to achieve her objectives. Syria became partially independent in 1939 A.D. but France continued stationing her troops there. But the revolutionaries still continued their efforts to turn out the French troops from their country. In 1946 A.D. the U.N.O. intervened and compelled France to remove her forces from there. In this way Syria got complete independence in 1946 A.D.

4. **Iraq.** As explained above, Iraq passed under the control of England according to the Treaty of 1920 A.D. among the Allies. The English at first instigated the people of Iraq against the Sultan of Turkey, but when the people of Iraq became politically conscious, the English tried to crush this national spirit. But at first the efforts of the people bore no fruit. But in 1927 A.D. they crowned Shah Feizal as the ruler of Iraq. Feizal introduced many reforms and made Iraq a powerful and prosperous country. In 1932 A.D. England granted her complete independence.

5. **Palestine.** In ancient times Palestine was inhabited by the Jews. The Roman Emperors turned them out and since then the Arabs settled there. In 1920 A.D. when England acquired Palestine many Jews again settled there. The Arabs, however, could not tolerate it and this led to many strifes between the two nations. Hitler inflicted many atrocities on the Jews of Germany and forced them to shift to Palestine during the Second World War. The English withdrew their forces from Palestine on May 13, 1948 A.D. Soon the Jews took full advantage of this situation and declared Palestine as an independent country of the Jews and renamed it as Israel. Russia and America recognized it and it became the member of the U.N.O. The Jews made it a powerful and prosperous country on the basis of their knowledge and wealth. The Arabs began to oppose them tooth and nail and tried their best to dominate Palestine. This led to a continuous struggle between them and this crisis still remains to be solved.

6. **Afghanistan.** England established her domination over Afghanistan in 1907 A.D. To face the upsurge of the national feelings among the Afghans, the English introduced many administrative reforms to satisfy them. They, however, remained discontented and revolted against the English under the leadership of

Amir Imanullah. Being forced by circumstances England granted freedom to the Afghans in 1919 A.D.

SECTION 6—RISE OF NATIONALISM IN AFRICA

The different Colonial Powers of Europe took advantage of the backwardness of Africa and partitioned it among themselves in the 19th century. England seized Rhodesia, Natal, Transvaal, Gold Coast, Nigeria, Cape Colony, Zambia, etc. British domination was mostly limited to South Africa. While France dominated North Africa. France had occupied Algeria, Tunisia, Central Africa, Madagascar, etc. The Portuguese established their colonies in East Africa and Spain in West Africa. Belgium and Italy also carved out their sphere of influence in Africa. But in the 20th century the wave of nationalism engulfed the whole African peninsula.

1. Causes of the Rise of Nationalism in Africa. For centuries Africa was known as the '*Dark Continent*'. The Europeans exploited it to their full advantage. They not only enslaved them but also sold them in other countries. They inflicted various cruelties on them. The Africans were illiterate and very backward. They raised no voice against tyranny in the beginning. Ruthless exploitation ultimately gave rise to national feelings among them and awakened the '*African Lion*'. The following causes led to the growth of nationalism in Africa :—

(1) The Europeans *exploited the Africans economically* and drained their national resources. This created discontentment among the people.

(2) *Western education* made the Africans conscious of their rights. They went to various European countries for higher education. They were greatly influenced by the liberalism, nationalism and democratic system of the West. They brought with them the progressive and revolutionary ideas of Liberty, Equality and Fraternity.

(3) The Europeans *hated the Africans* and regarded them inferior to themselves. This hatred created hatred against the Europeans.

(4) The Christian missionaries taught *universal brotherhood*. As a result the Africans began to demand equality.

(5) The *Second World War* gave impetus to nationalism in Africa. They witnessed the Europeans killing each other. Their spiritual superiority was thrown to the winds. They were no longer afraid of the whitemen and launched national movement for their freedom.

(6) India, Burma, Ceylon and other *Asian countries* became free after the Second World War. It kindled the fire of nationalism among the Africans.

(7) Various *African leaders* such as Wilmot Blyden, Jackson, Du Bois, Dr. Buckner Washington, William Taylor, Kukulux Kulao, Marx Gorway, etc. contributed a lot towards the rise of nationalism in Africa. Wilmot Blyden was the first to raise the slogan, "*Africa for Africans*." Talyor demanded equal rights for the Africans. Kukulux prepared the Africans to turn out the foreigners from their land. These leaders organised the public opinion against European Imperialism and prepared the ground for national consciousness.

(8) The African leaders held *political conferences* in London (1921 A.D.), in Brussels, (1922 A.D.) and in Lisbon (1923 A.D.). Though these conferences failed to achieve their objectives, they paved the way for national movement in Africa.

(9) People of various European countries began to realize that the Africans were being treated cruelly. So they established various *Leagues* in Africa to improve their condition. The names of Universal Negro Improvement League, African Community League and West African Students' League are noteworthy.

✓2. **Independence of African Countries.** (1) *Egypt.* Egypt was occupied by England in 1882 A.D. The Egyptians started national movement for their independence under the leadership of Z. Pasha. As a result Egypt got freedom in 1922 A.D. but the English still stationed their troops there. The Egyptians resented it, therefore Egypt had to pass through troubled times between 1922 to 1936 A.D. England withdrew her troops in 1936 A.D. but she retained the right to occupy certain bases. After the Second World War Colonel Nasser took the command of the national movement in his hands. He over-threw monarchy and set-up a republican form of government in Egypt and demanded the complete withdrawal of the English from Egypt. He internationalized the Suez Canal in 1956 A.D. At this the combined forces of England, France and Israel attacked Egypt. But Russia threatened to send her forces to the help of Egypt so the war came to an end. In 1957 A.D. National Assembly was formed in Egypt and Col. Nasser was elected the President of the independent Egypt.

To the south of Egypt lay Sudan which was ruled jointly by the British and the Egyptians. It became free in 1956 A.D.

(2) *Independence of Ghanz.* Gold Coast was under the domination of Holland but in 1871 A.D. it was seized by England. The people of Gold Coast started their national movement under the leadership of Dr. Nkrumah in 1946 A.D. The English tried to crush this movement forcibly but failed. At last they were compelled to grant freedom to Gold Coast in March, 1957 A.D. and soon this state came to be known as Ghana.

(3) *Independence of Algeria.* Algeria was occupied by France in 1872 A.D. The economic exploitation of the people of Algeria gave rise to nationalism in Algeria. In the beginning the national movement was peaceful and constitutional and the French govern-

ment granted representation to the Algerians in the French Parliament. But the people were not satisfied and the movement took a violent turn after the Second World War. Consequently the French granted complete independence to Algeria in 1963 A.D.

(4) *Independence of Nigeria.* Nigeria was under the control of England. There was national uprising against the British Imperialism under the leadership of Nnamdi Azikiwe. At last England set her free in 1960 A.D.

(5) *Kenya.* Kenya was a British Colony in East Africa. England controlled her since 1887 A.D. Most of the cultivable land was under the possession of the European settlers. Naturally it was greatly resented by the people of Kenya and it led to national upsurge. Jomo Kenyatta was the chief leader of the national movement. The English tried to crush it forcibly, but they failed badly and ultimately they granted her independence in 1963 A.D.

(6) *Congo.* Congo was a Belgian Colony and was exploited very badly by the Belgians. This resulted in the national rising in Congo. It gained impetus in 1957 A.D. The Belgian Government was helpless to crush nationalism and at last granted her independence in 1960 A.D.

(7) *Independence of other French Colonies.* When General De Gaulle became the President of France he adopted a liberal attitude towards the French Colonies in Africa. He granted them the right of self-determination and allowed them either to remain under France or to assert their independence. As a result various colonies such as Morocco, Tunisia, Togoland, Cameroon, Ivory Coast, Central Africa and Madagascar, etc. became free.

(8) *Independence of other Colonies.* The wake of nationalism affected other African colonies as well and they also got their independence. Mali became free in 1960 A.D.; Mauritania, Somalia in 1961 A.D., Jamaica, Roanda, Trinidad, Tobago, and Uganda in 1962 A.D. and Zanzibar in 1963 A.D.

Thus the national movement in Africa led to the freedom of many countries of Africa which later on became the members of the U.N.O. After gaining political freedom they had no doubt to face many problems for national reconstruction. These countries are, however, overcoming these problems and are making rapid progress in the economic and social spheres.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

SECTION 1 :—Causes of the Rise of Nationalism

(1) Economic Exploitation ; (2) Social Injustice ; (3) Influence of the West ; (4) Contribution of Great Leaders ; (5) Contribution of Literature and Press ; (6) Defeat of Russia by Japan ; and (7) The World Wars.

SECTION 2 :—Nationalism in Asia particularly in India

1. *Causes.* (1) British Imperialism, (2) English Language and improved means of transport and communication; (3) Contact with European Countries; (4) The Great Rising of 1857 A.D.; (5) Great Leaders of India; (6) Indian Press and Literature; (7) Economic Distress of the People; (8) Repressive Policy and Racial Bitterness.

2. *Course.* (1) Origin of the Indian National Congress in 1885 A.D.; (2) Change in the Official Attitude; (3) The Rise of the Swadeshi Movement; (4) Rise of the Revolutionary Party or the Extremists; (5) Muslim attitude and rise of the Muslim League in 1906 A.D.; (6) Split between the Moderates and the Extremists in the Congress and the Policy of the government towards them; (7) Home Rule Movement, 1916 A.D.; (8) The Rowlatt Act, 1919 A.D.; (9) Mahatma Gandhi and the Non-co-operation Movement in 1920 A.D.; (10) Simon Commission and Demand for Complete Independence; (11) Civil Disobedience Movement in 1930 A.D.; (12) Formation of the Congress Ministries in 1937-39 A.D.; (13) Quit India Movement in 1942 A.D.; (14) Indian National Army; (15) Towards Independence; (16) The Independence Act of 1947 A.D. and the Partition of India.

SECTION 3 :—Rise of China

Division of China into spheres of influence by European Powers: (1) The Sino-Japanese War in 1894-95 A.D. and its results. (2) The Boxer Rebellion of 1900 A.D. and its failure; (3) Establishment of Democracy in China and Sun-Yat-Sen; (4) Nationalist Government of Canton under Sun-Yat-Sen and reforms introduced by him; (5) Rise of Chiang-Kai-Shek after the death of Sun-Yat-Sen in 1925 A.D. and the Communist Party; (6) China-Japan War and occupation of Manchuria by Japan in 1931 A.D.; (7) Spread of communism, civil war between the Nationalists and the Communists and division of China into two parts.

SECTION 4 :—Nationalism in Japan

(1) Japan's contact with the Western World; (2) The Meiji Era in (1867-1912 A.D.) and reforms introduced during this period; (3) The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95 A.D.; (4) Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 A.D.; (5) Japan and the First World War; (6) Japan seized Manchuria in 1931 A.D.; (7) Japan's defeat in the Second World War and Progress made afterwards.

SECTION 5 :—Nationalism in South-East Asia

(1) Indo-China; (2) Burma; (3) Indonesia; (4) Malaysia; (5) Ceylon; and (6) Philippines.

SECTION 6 :—Awakening in West Asia

(1) Turkey; (2) Iran; (3) Syria; (4) Iraq; (5) Palestine; and (6) Algeria.

SECTION 7 :—Rise of Nationalism in Africa

Causes of Rise of Nationalism. (1) Economic exploitation by the European Powers; (2) Western Education; (3) European hatred of the Africans; (4) The Christian Missionaries; (5) Effect of the Second World War; (6) Effect of the Freedom of Asian Countries; (7) African Leaders; (8) Political Conferences; (9) Leagues.

Independence of various African Countries. (1) Independence of Egypt in 1957 A.D.; (2) Independence of Ghana in March, 1957 A.D.; (3) Independence of Algeria in 1963 A.D.; (4) Freedom of Nigeria in 1960 A.D.; (5) Freedom of Kenya in 1965 A.D.; (6) Freedom of Congo in 1960 A.D.; (7) Independence of various colonies under France; (8) Independence of other colonies.

University and Other Important Questions

1. What were the main factors which led the National Movement in Asia in the 20th century?
2. Make a review of the rise of Nationalism in Asia.
3. "African Lion has awakened". Elucidate.
4. "If the 19th century was an opportunity for the West, the 20th century is for the East." Explain.
5. Give a brief account of the influence of Europe in Asia during the 19th and 20th centuries.
6. Give an account of the national awakening in India.
7. Narrate the history of India's struggle for national independence from 1920 to 1947 A.D.
8. "Israel is the cause of unrest in West-Asia." State your views.
9. Account for the growth of Nationalism in Africa after the Second World War. Write names of the five nation states in this continent. (C.B.S.E. 1970)
10. Account for the rise and fall of Japan in modern times. (B.U. 1961)
11. Describe the causes and consequences of the rise of nationalism in India and China. (B.U. 1962)
12. Trace the rise of Japan to the status of a Great Power and show the significance of this for Asia. (B.U. 1963)
13. Describe the system of exploitation of China by the European Powers in modern times and mention the consequences of it. (B.U. 1963, 66)
14. Narrate briefly the history of the rise of Japan in the 19th and 20th centuries. (B.U. 1967)
15. Describe the part played by (a) Lenin and (b) Sun-Yat-Sen in their countries. (B.U. 1969)
16. Narrate briefly the story of Indian National Movement under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi. (B.U. 1969)
17. Write short notes on the following :—

(1) Mahatma Gandhi; (2) Sun-Yat Sen; (3) Dr. Soekarno; (4) Dr. Nkrumah; (5) Quit-India Movement; (6) Boxers' Revolt;

18. Fill in the blanks in the following :—

- (1) was the greatest leader of the Indian National Movement.
- (2) was the First President of Indonesia.
- (3) Egypt got complete independence in 1956
- (4) was the first to preach Communism in China.
- (5) was the first name of Israel.

19. Give the dates of the following events :

- (1) India won freedom in 15 Aug 1947
- (2) Establishment of Israel in 1948
- (3) Independence of Indonesia in 1945
- (4) Independence of Ghana in 1947
- (5) Internationalization of the Suez Canal in 1956

20. Mention against each name listed in group 'A', what each is associated with in group 'B' :

A	B
Colonel Nasser	Independence of Ghana
Kamal Pasha	Independence of Egypt
Sun-Yat-Sen	Independence of Turkey
Mahatma Gandhi	Independence of China
Dr. Nkrumah	Independence of India.

21. Strike that which is not applicable :

- (1) First name of Israel. (1) Tunisia ; (2) Palestine ; (3) Nigeria.
- (2) Kamal Pasha worked for the freedom of (1) India ; (2) China ; (3) Turkey.
- (3) North Vietnam is being helped by (1) America ; (2) China ; (3) England.

The Russian Revolution and Communism

When the First World War (1914-1918) was still on, there took place a revolution in Russia, in 1917 A.D. It was as much a political revolution as it was a social and economic revolution. After the French Revolution of 1789 A.D. it was the second great revolution in Europe. By this revolution autocratic rule in Russia was replaced by the Communist Government. It also established a new classless society based on the principle of socialism. It occupies an important place not only in the History of Russia but also occupies a special place in the History of the World. Consequently, Communism spread in many parts of the world. It is also known as the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 A.D.

SECTION 1—CAUSES OF THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917 A.D.

Following were the main causes of Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. :—

(1) *Miserable Condition of the Farmers.* Russia was a backward agricultural country even upto the 19th century. Feudalism formed the basis of agriculture and serfdom prevailed there upto 1861 A.D. The farmers worked as serfs on the land and much of their produce went into the hands of the higher class. Serfdom was no doubt abolished in 1861 A.D. but the conditions of the farmers still remained miserable. A large number of them owned only $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres of land. They used primitive tools and methods of cultivation. The burden of taxation also fell on them and they had no money to make improvements in the lands owned by them. About 70% of the farmers could not get even a square meals a day.

(2) *Miserable Condition of the Labourers.* The Industrial Revolution in Russia, like in any of the country gave a great impetus to many industries. The capitalists invested huge sums in various industries to amass huge wealth. They exploited the workers for their selfish ends. Consequently the workers had to work 12 to 14 hours a day. Their wages were very low. They could not

form trade union to improve their lot. As a result of this, their condition remained very miserable and they led a wretched life.

(3) *Defective Social Structure* In the Russian society there was a great difference in the life of the upper and the lower classes. The upper class enjoyed special rights and privileges whereas the masses were deprived even of their legitimate rights. All the steps taken to improve the condition of the serfs proved ineffective. The condition of the workers was also very miserable. They produced wealth for the capitalists but themselves lived a wretched life. In short, the Russian social structure was based on inequality. The masses were poor, weak, hungry, diseased and ignorant while the upper class led a luxurious life.

(4) *Demands of the New Middle Class.* The Industrial Revolution, however, gave rise to a powerful middle class which comprised of the traders and factory owners, etc. They in the company of the intelligentsia made a demand for responsible government, right of voting and freedom of press, and speech and equality before law. The Czar turned down their genuine demands. It has been rightly said, "*The perversity of Nicholas and his blindness to the potential strength of the new forces that were surging round him, produced the Russian Revolution.*"

(5) *The Autocratic Rule of the Czar.* The Czar was an autocratic and a self-willed ruler. All the administrative powers of the state were vested in him. There was no check on his powers and rights. He used his powers according to his own will. He ignored the public welfare. His rule was both ruthless and oppressive. The privileged class had got special rights while the general public had no say in the government. Czar Nicholas II was an inefficient and weak ruler. He was completely under the influence of his minister Plehve who was against all kinds of reforms. The immoral monk Rasputin was in the good books of the Czar and the Czarina. He was called 'The Holy Devil'. He was responsible for the reactionary policy of the Czar to a great extent.

Though the Revolution of 1905 failed yet the Czar had to establish Parliament to satisfy the discontented people and it was called 'Duma'. Its powers were limited and the masses were not given the right to vote. It has been rightly said, "*Duma was reactionary, irresponsible and an instrument of the Czar.*" The people were against such an autocratic government and wanted to put an end to it.

(6) *Inefficient Administration* The administration in Russia was not only autocratic but it was inefficient also. The Czar had given the administration into the hands of inefficient officials and they never thought of the welfare of the people. Atrocities were committed on the Jews, writers, teachers, students and the masses in many ways. People were fed up with this inefficient administration and wanted to uproot it. They thought that the only way to get rid of feudalism and social tyranny was revolution.

(7) *Influence of Karl Marx and other Intellectuals.* Karl Marx was a German Jew but he lived in Russia. He was a staunch supporter of socialism. He wrote his principles in his famous book '*Das Capital*'. He was deadly against capitalism and private property. According to him the whole society should have common control over the means of production. All the units of production should be nationalised. Capitalism can be rooted out only through revolution and by establishing dictatorship of the Proletariate or the workers. The teachings of Karl Marx and the liberal ideas of the West made a great contribution to the rise of revolution in Russia. Different Russian writers such as Tolstoy and Tuageney etc. infused revolutionary ideas into the minds of the Russian youth and they started demanding the same rights as were available to the people in the western countries. The Czar turned down their demands and this produced the revolution,

(8) *Political Parties* Peasants and workers were much exploited in Russia and their condition became from bad to worse. Under these circumstances the principles of Karl Marx had great effect on them. The workers set-up the Social Democratic Party in 1893 A.D. incorporating the socialist principles. In 1903 A.D. this party was divided into two parts—Bolsheviks and Mensheviks. The Bolsheviks were more powerful and their leader was Lenin. This group believed in the revolutionary and violent means to set-up the '*Dictatorship of the Proletariate*'. The Bolsheviks took the leadership of the revolution in their own hands.

(9) *Russo-Japanese War, 1904-5 A.D.* Russia was defeated in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-5 A.D. This defeat at the hands of a small nation turned the people against the Czar. They were of the view that the reason of their defeat was none else but the inefficient and weak government of the Czar which could not manage the war in a proper manner.

(10) *Effect of the First World War.* Russia joined the Allies in the First World War in 1914 A.D. She gained some success in the beginning but after 1915 A.D. she had to face defeat after defeat. It became difficult for the Russians to fight due to the shortage of war-material and food stuffs. The untrained farmers were sent to the fronts in large numbers to fight in the war. As such Russia suffered heavy loss of men and money. The shortage of food grains and clothes created a great unrest among the people. Consequently there was a great crisis in Russia. The whole machinery of the state was out of gear and the national life was completely paralysed. So the situation was ripe for the revolution. It is said, "*The war produced the opportunity. Fate produced the leader in Lenin. His great, intellectual and personal powers enabled him to dominate the situation, he saw the opportunity when others did not.*" •

SECTION 2—EVENTS OF THE REVOLUTION

(1) *Revolts of March, 1917 A.D.* The Revolution started on March 7, 1917 A.D. because there was a severe famine in Russia. The workers struck work and marched through the streets of Petrograd. They were shouting for bread. Such things happened at other places also. In the villages the farmers started revolting. The troops were sent to suppress the revolutionaries but they also joined them. Due to the shortage of food-stuffs the riots broke out at every place and unrest and lawlessness spread throughout the country. The revolutionaries stormed the jails and set the prisoners free. Many corrupt ministers and officials were put behind the bars. The Czar was compelled to leave the throne on March 15, 1917 A.D. and a temporary government was set-up under the leadership of Prince Kerensky because his followers, the Mensheviks, enjoyed majority in the 'Duma'.

(2) *The Provisional Government* Kerensky was moderate and not a radical leader. He followed the middle path. He gave freedom of press and speech, and religious freedom to the public. He promised to set-up a Constituent Assembly on the Western pattern. The Allies recognised the provisional government and she then made a declaration to continue the war. But the public opposed it as they were tired of the war. They first of all wanted a peace and the work to do and bread to eat in place of political reforms and administrative changes. The people rather wanted a change in the economic and social spheres. The Provisional Government, in the end failed to solve the problems of the peasants and workers. The peasants got no land and the workers got no relief. They were still leading an unhappy and miserable life.

(3) *Arrival of Lenin* Lenin was a great revolutionary of Russia. He was born in 1870 A.D. After receiving education he joined the Communist Revolutionary Party and started spreading revolutionary ideas among the workers. He favoured the setting-up of a new society based on the principles of socialism of Karl Marx. As a result he had to remain out of Russia from 1905 to 1907 A.D.

He heard the news of the outbreak of the Russian Revolution when he was in Switzerland. He reached Petrograd on April 17, 1917 A.D. He led the Revolution and set-up a Communist Government in place of the despotic rule in Russia.

Lenin united the peasants and workers under the Bolshevik Party and directed the revolution against the Provisional Government. The peasants



Lenin

killed the landlords and took possession of their lands and property. The troops also joined the revolutionaries who soon brought Petrograd under their control. Lenin forcibly dissolved the Provisional Government. Kerensky ran away and the reins of the government fell into the hands of the Bolshevik Party under the leadership of Lenin on November 7, 1917 A.D.

Taking the powers in its hands the Bolshevik Government, first of all, concluded the Treaty of Brest Litovsk in 1918 A.D. with Germany to end the war. This treaty was, however, highly disgraceful for Russia as she lost Poland, the Ukraine, Lithuania and Latvia. A new constitution was adopted in Russia in July, 1918 A.D. Local Soviets were set-up to run the local administration of the villages and towns. Local Soviets elected the members of the Provincial Soviets which in turn elected the members of the Russian Congress of Soviets. The Central Executive Committee was elected by the Central Soviet. It elected the Council of People's Commission to run the government. Every person of 18 years of age was given the right to vote. The real powers of the government were in the hands of the Communist Party. It had complete control over the administration and on the economic and social structure of the country. Lenin, the President of this Party, was all in all.

Efforts were made to set-up a socialist government on the basis of the principles of Marx. The private property was confiscated. Lenin took the land from the landlords and distributed it among the peasants. The government nationalised all the factories and handed over their management to the workers. All debts were remitted. The property of the church was also confiscated. It was made compulsory for all to render labour.

The landlords, traders, clergymen and supporters of the Czar opposed these reforms. So a civil war broke out between the upper and the lower classes. Lenin suppressed all opposition by violent means and committed many atrocities. The Czar, with his family, was shot dead in July, 1918 A.D.

Lenin wanted to make the Russian Revolution an international feature and attempted to spread socialism in the whole of the world. So the Allies refused to recognize the Bolshevik Government of Russia. They sent their forces into Russia to crush the Bolshevik Government but they did not act in co-ordination and consequently they failed to crush it.

In the beginning Lenin's land reforms reduced the production and a great famine broke out in Russia in 1921 A.D. in which thousands of persons died of hunger. The output in factories also declined because the workers lacked discipline and managing ability. Lenin realized his mistakes and formed a New Economic Policy (N.E.P.) According to this policy the peasants were to pay a fixed tax to the government in cash or kind and not the whole of the produce. Only

the big industries and factories were nationalised. The foreign capitalists were provided facilities to invest in larger industries. Private retail trade was allowed under certain conditions. In this way Lenin saved his country from a grave economic crisis by making an adjustment, according to the needs of the times, between socialism and capitalism.

When Lenin died in 1924 A.D. he had made definite achievements. He rendered useful service to his country. He brought an end to the autocratic rule in Russia and replaced it by a Communist Government. He established a new society and economic set up on the basis of socialism. It has been rightly remarked, '*As a father of the Bolshevik Revolution and the creator of new Russia he will occupy a prominent place in the pages of history*'.

SECTION 3—RESULTS OF THE REVOLUTION OF 1917

The Russian Revolution has an important place not only in the History of Russia but also in the History of the World. It has been regarded as one of the significant events in the history of mankind. Following were its chief results:—

(1) *End of the Autocratic Rule*. Czar Nicholas II was a despotic ruler and he never cared for the welfare of the people. In this Revolution the Czar and the members of his family were put to death. In this way the Revolution brought an end to the autocratic, self-willed and despotic rule in Russia.

(2) *Government of the Proletariates*. After the Revolution the power came into the hands of the proletariates or the working class under the leadership of Lenin. The union of the Soviet Socialist Republic was formed on the basis of the Bolshevik principles.

(3) *New Social Set up*. The landlords, businessmen and clergymen were all reduced to nothing. Everything including all the land, factories, mines, industries and all the sources of production were nationalised. The old social set-up based on inequality was thus abolished and new social set-up was formed on the basis of Communism. "*Every one according to his ability and every one according to his work*" was the principle that was followed. Now even the capitalists had to work because it was decided that those who did not work would not get food as well as the right to vote.

(4) *New Economic Changes*. Many changes were introduced in the economic sphere so that definite improvements must take place in the condition of the farmers and the workmen. The land was forcibly taken away from the landlords and distributed among the peasants. The management of the factories was handed over to the workmen. All the debts were cancelled. Proper arrangements for the education of the workmen were made and military training and military service were made compulsory for them.

(5) *Russia became a World Power.* Before the Revolution Russia was considered as a very backward country and was not counted much in the world politics. After the Russian Revolution of 1917 A D, Russia made much progress in all the spheres of life under the dictatorship and guidance of leaders like Lenin (and later on under Stalin) and slowly and slowly she became a Super power

(6) *End of the Russian Imperialism.* The Russian Revolution also put an end to the Russian imperialism. Many countries which groaned under the Russian bondage were set free. Poland, Finland, Georgia etc became free without any struggle.

(7) *Effect on Colonial Empires.* The Revolution of 1917 A D was more or less international in character. The spirit of this Revolution had a great effect on the minds of the people of Asia and Africa who were being exploited by their European masters and were suffering many hardships under their tyrannical rule. It awakened them from their deep sleep of ignorance and infused in them a new spirit of nationalism. They began to clamour for their freedom on the basis of the principle of self-determination. The Communist Revolution in China and a great many national movements in the colonial world were inspired by this revolution.

(8) *Influence on the Workers of the World.* The Russian Revolution, in particular, has a special importance for the workers of the world. The Russian Revolution set-up a new society on the basis of the Communist principles by introducing drastic changes in the social and economic spheres. It led to a direct struggle between Marxism and Capitalism. It terrified the capitalists of the world. They, on their own, began to give due attention to the welfare of the workers. It gave a call to the workers of the world to unite on the basis of equality and fraternity against the capitalists. The Russian socialism was not only limited to Russia alone but it affected almost all the countries of the world. It gave rise to socialism in all the countries of the World. In a way, the Russian Revolution is still going on and its tide is now spreading all over the world.

(9) *Totalitarianism.* On the negative side of the revolution, it can be said that it has led to the establishment of totalitarianism and regimentation of life. There is dictatorship in Russia. The Russians do not enjoy individual freedom. No importance is attached to human dignity. Life of the individuals is completely controlled by the state. Thus this revolution has paved the way for the tyranny of the state instead of the Czar. Those who oppose the government are transported to Concentration Camps in the cold region of Siberia.

Thus the Russian Revolution has a great importance in the History of the World. About the significance of this revolution Dr. J.E Swain writes, "*Certainly nothing has let loose such a deluge of condemnation and eulogy and nothing has so completely*

challenged orthodox theories since the French revolutionists overthrew Bourbons. The Russians in a few years, have set-up standards for a new way of living and thinking".

SECTION 4—NATURE OF REVOLUTION AND ITS COMPARISON WITH OTHER REVOLUTIONS

As regards the nature of the Russian Revolution it can be said that it was violent and was completed by cruel means and bloodshed. The Czar, the members of his family and a large number of landlords and clergymen were put to death. The peasants and workers used violent means and shed much blood to end the despotic rule and to eradicate social and economic inequalities. Again the Russian Revolution was international in character. Its influence was not confined to Russia alone. It attracted millions of people of the world. It is dynamic and not static and is still going on.

The Russian Revolution was, no doubt, violent like the American and the French Revolutions but it differs from them in many respects. The American Revolution led to the establishment of democracy. The French Revolution was also in favour of democracy but in it the bourgeoisie occupied more important place. They (the American and French Revolutions) disfavoured oppressive monarchy and kindled the flame of nationalism and democracy. They gave to the world the new ideas of Equality, Liberty and Fraternity. They gave warning to other governments which were oppressing their people. They gave many rights to the people such as the right to private property, freedom of thought and expression etc. On the other hand the Russian Revolution was based on Communist ideas. It established dictatorship and totalitarian system of government in Russia. The Russians claim that they have established the Dictatorship of the Proletariate but it is said that there is the dictatorship of one party which is very oppressive and ruthless. There is regimentation of life in Russia and the means of production are completely under the control of the government. People there do not enjoy individual liberty and are deprived of rights, the of freedom, and of expression.

SECTION 5—STALIN AND COMMUNISM

1. Rise to Power. Like Lenin, Stalin has also done much for the service of his country and the cause of Communism. Stalin was a staunch follower of Lenin. In 1917 A.D. he became the Secretary of the Bolshevik Party. He did a lot of work during the civil war and later on in organising the Bolshevik Party. After the death of Lenin in 1924 A.D., there was a struggle between his two companions i.e., Stalin and Trotsky for power. Trotsky was Lenin's Home Minister. He had a great hand in preparing the people

for the Revolution and in organising the Red Army to meet the external danger. In this struggle that ensued between Stalin and Trotsky, Stalin came out victorious. He exiled Trotsky and his companions and consequently he became the leader of the Communist Party and the dictator of Russia

2. Economic Policy of Stalin. Stalin paid a great attention towards the economic and cultural progress of Russia. He framed Five Year Plans for this purpose. The main objectives of these plans were to reconstruct the nation, to increase production, to encourage industries, to attain self sufficiency in economic sphere and to make Russia a powerful country of the world. The First Five Year Plan began in 1928 A.D., the Second in 1932 A.D. and the Third in 1938 A.D. These plans succeeded in achieving their objectives to a great extent and an amazing progress was made in the spheres of agriculture and industrial production. The natural resources of the country were exploited fully and as a result of this the country became quite self-sufficient. Soon both unemployment and hunger were removed. In short, it can be said that Stalin made his country both prosperous and powerful by three Five Year Plans.

3. Educational and Religious Reforms. Great emphasis was laid on education so as to spread the Communist ideology and to root out the Czarist thought. Schools and technical institutions were set-up for the spread of education. By 1935 A.D. the number of educated persons in Russia reached to 80% of the total population. There was no place for religion in Russian Communism. The Communists took the old church as their great enemy as it supported Czardom. They finished the church and confiscated its property. Stalin gave a new constitution to Russia in 1936 A.D.

4 Foreign Policy of Stalin. Stalin tried to establish friendly relations with different Western Powers because he wanted peace for the reconstruction and spread of Communism in Russia. The increasing power of Japan was a great menace to her in the East and Germany in the West. He entered into non-aggression pacts with Poland, Lithuania, Latvia etc, in 1932 A.D. In 1933 A.D. U.S.A. recognized Russia and established political and commercial relations with her. He entered into a defence pact with France and Czechoslovakia to save Russia from the menace of Germany. In 1936 A.D. Stalin also signed a pact with Germany on 23rd August, 1939 A.D.

Russia gained an important place in the international sphere as a result of Stalin's foreign policy. Later on he joined the Allies in the Second World War which proved to be the main cause of the German's defeat. He dashed all the hopes of Hitler to the ground.

In this way, we see that Stalin did much for his country. Under him Communism also made an all-round development.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

1. Causes of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. (1) Miserable condition of the farmers, (2) Miserable condition of the labourers; (3) Defective social structure; (4) Demands of the new middle-class; (5) The autocratic rule of the Czar; (6) Inefficient administration; (7) Influence of Karl Marx and other intellectuals. (8) Political Parties, (9) Russo-Japanese War 1904-1905 A.D., (10) Effects of the First World War

2. Events (1) Famine and revolt of March, 1917 A.D. and overthrow of the rule of Czar, (2) Provisional government of Kerensky and the middle path followed by it, (3) Arrival of Lenin, Second Revolution of November, 1917 A.D., Early Reforms introduced by Lenin failed to solve the problems, His New Economic Policy.

3 Results (1) End of Autocratic Rule in Russia; (2) Government of the Proletariates, (3) New Social set-up; (4) New Economic change, (5) Russia became a World-Power; (6) End of Russian imperialism, (7) Effect on the Colonial Empires, (8) Influence on the workers of the world, (9) Totalitarianism.

4 Nature of Russian Revolution and its Comparison with other Revolutions (1) Russian Revolution was violent, international in character and is still continuing, (2) The American and the French Revolutions favoured democratic form of government and granted various rights to the individual. On the other hand the Russian Revolution gave rise to dictatorship, totalitarianism and regimentation of life.

5 Stalin and Communism. After the death of Lenin in 1924 A.D. there was a struggle for power between his two followers Stalin and Trotsky, Stalin succeeded in this struggle and captured power, Economic Policy, Educational and Social reforms, New Constitution of 1936 A.D. and Foreign Policy of Stalin, Great service for his country and Communism

University and Other Important Questions

1. Discuss the causes and consequences of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D.
2. What were the main aims of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D.? What were its effects?
3. Describe briefly the course of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. Assess the nature of its impact upon the rest of the World.
4. What do you mean by the Dictatorship of the Proletariates? How was it established in Russia in 1917 A.D.?
5. Do you think that the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. surpassed the French Revolution in importance and significance? State reasons for your answer. (B.U. 1963)
6. Discuss the causes of the Russian Revolution. What was the role of Lenin in the events of 1917 A.D. (B.U. 1965)

7. Discuss the nature, significance and results of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. (B.U. 1968)
8. Enumerate the causes and the consequences of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. (B.U. 1971)
9. Write short notes on each of the following :—
 (1) Lenin (2) Kerensky (3) Dumas (4) Trotsky (5) Stalin (6) Rasputin (7) Causes of the Russian Revolution (8) Significance of the Russian Revolution.
10. Give the names of the following :—
 (1) Writer of the Das Capital. (2) Last Czar of Russia (3) City where the Russian Revolution started. (4) Political Party which took the reins of the government under Lenin. (5) Successors of Lenin.
11. Give the dates of the following :—
 (1) Red Sunday (2) Beginning of the Russian Revolution (3) Abdication of the Czar (4) Second Revolution of Russia (5) Death of Lenin.
12. Mention against each name in Group A what each is associated with in Group B.

A

B

Lenin	Das Capital Book
Rasputin	Leader of the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D.,
Karl Marx	Czar of Russia
Nicholas II	Priest who inspired Czar to follow reactionary policy.

13. Strike out which is not applicable :—
 (1) Bolshevik—
 (i) Czar of Russia. (ii) Leader of the Russian Revolution.
 (iii) Political Party in Russia.
 - (2) Russian Revolution started in—
 (i) Moscow (ii) Leningrad (iii) Petrograd.
-

The First World War, 1914-18 A.D.

In 1914 A.D. there broke out a war which soon engulfed the whole of the world in its vicious circle. This in history is called the First World War. It was different from the previous wars in many respects. It was fought on a world-wide scale and deeply influenced all the countries of the world. It was fought on land, in the air, on sea and under sea. New methods of destruction and defence were used in it. It was fought not only by armies, navies and aeroplanes but by the whole peoples of the world. It brought great disaster and also sowed the seeds of more discord for the future.

✓ SECTION 1—CAUSES OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR ✓

Following were some of the causes of the First World War which was fought between 1914 to 1918 A.D. :—

(1) *Franco German Rivalry.* France was defeated by Germany in 1870-71 A.D. and consequently her two important provinces of Alsace and Lorraine were taken away from her. Both of these were famous for iron deposits and hence France could not prosper without them. Germany was not ready to return them at any cost. This generated a spirit of revenge among the French people. Again both the countries wanted to seize Morocco in Africa. The Morocco crisis also created enmity between them. Thus a conflict between them became quite inevitable.

(2) *Division of Europe into two Hostile Groups.* France was defeated very badly in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71 A.D. After 1871 A.D., the German Chancellor, Bismarck adopted such a policy so as to keep France isolated and prevented her from establishing friendly relations with any other European country. He himself, however, formed a Dual Alliance with Austria in 1879 A.D. Italy joined it later on and in 1882 A.D. it was converted into a Triple Alliance. As long as Bismarck was alive he by his diplomacy did not allow any country to make friendship with France. It was only after his fall that France established friendly relations with Russia and England and three countries entered into Triple Entente in 1907 A.D. This agreement was a reply to the Triple Alliance. Later on Japan joined the Triple Entente while

Turkey joined the Triple Alliance. So Europe was divided into two hostile groups and consequently tension and anarchy prevailed in the international sphere. To quote **Prof Fay**, "*The greatest single underlying cause of the war was the system of secret alliances, which developed after the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 A.D. This system made it inevitable that if war did come, it would involve all the Great Powers of Europe. The members of each group felt bound to support each other in order to strengthen the solidarity of the group*" These alliances divided Europe into two hostile groups whose mutual enmity proved to be a great cause of the First World War. It has been rightly remarked, "*It all came from this dual system of alliances which was the curse of modern times*" ✕

(3) *Militarism*. Germany started increasing her naval force and army with a great speed. She also started making arms and ammunition on a large scale. This resulted in a race for armaments between the rival groups. To quote **Marriot**, "*A determined effort was made by European Governments to teach the people the glory and necessity of war.*" Every country in Europe declared that she was preparing arms for her own safety. But how could all-round preparations for arms and ammunition check the breaking out of the war. A historian has rightly remarked, "*After all bombs are not prepared to shoot pigeons on holidays.*" Thus this race for armaments proved one of the chief causes of the war.

(4) *Poisoning of the Public Opinion by Newspapers*. The newspapers also played a great role in poisoning the public opinion. They presented the views in such a manner so as to increase their sale. By their hostile propaganda they created an atmosphere of doubt, distrust and tension which proved very harmful to the world peace.

(5) *Narrow Nationalism*. This was an era of narrow nationalism. The love of one's own country demanded the hatred of the other. The human feelings almost disappeared. Each nation thought about her own national interests and cared a fig for the others. France wanted to get back her provinces of Alsace and Lorraine from Germany at all costs. Again competition between England and Germany for commercial and colonial expansion reached at the climax. The conflict between Austria and Serbia in the Balkans also proved to be dangerous for the world peace. The interests of Austria and Russia also clashed in the Balkans. This spirit of narrow nationalism proved very harmful for the whole mankind.

(6) *Clash of Imperialistic Interests*. Almost all the European nations, especially Germany, were in favour of expanding their empires. So a conflict among them was but natural. As a result of the development of her industries Germany started producing different things on a large scale. She needed new colonies for raw material and for the sale of these goods. But many colonies were already in the hold of England and France. So Germany had to go against England and France if she was to build her colonial empire.

(7) *Germany's Attempt to become the First-rate Power of the World* Germany became a powerful country under the leadership of Bismarck. She defeated the powerful nations like France and Austria and also made a great progress in the sphere of trade and commerce. German Emperor Kaiser William II was very ambitious man. He wanted to make Germany the first rate power of the world. He believed in "*World Power or Downfall*". He wanted to have his own way in every case. Under these circumstances his clash with other powers was unavoidable.

(8) *Character of Kaiser William II.* The German Emperor Kaiser William II was very ambitious, arrogant and hot-headed. He started opposing every country openly and soon made many of his friends and allies as his opponents. His interference in the Balkan states made Russia his opponent. England also became his enemy when he began to expand his naval power. He was greatly responsible for the formation of the Triple Entente in which England, France and Russia bound themselves together.

(9) *Anglo-Germany Rivalry.* The English were the first rate naval power in the world upto the first half of the 19th century and there was none who could challenge her. But Germany started increasing her naval power at a rapid speed in the 2nd half of the 19th century so that she could compete with England. The Germans constructed huge ships and started widening the Kiel canal. It was a sort of challenge to the English naval power. She wanted to maintain her naval supremacy over the seas at all costs. This resulted in a race between the two countries to increase their naval power. This rivalry sent them to the hostile camps. To quote **Dr D C. Gupta**, "*The great historian of Germany, Von Treitschke, taught the German youths that the days of England's greatness were gone and those of Germany's greatness had begun. Most Germans believed him. England saw in the new Germany a threat to her own security.*"

(10) *Enmity between Russia and Austria* Enmity arose between Russia and Austria on the Balkan issue. Austria always opposed Serbia while Russia gave her (Serbia) blind support. In 1903 A.D. Austria annexed the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia strongly opposed it. Russia blindly supported Serbia. This led to the Balkan wars. The Kingdom of the Albania was established after the defeat of Serbia in the Balkan Wars. As a result, Serbia's approach to the Aegean sea became difficult so she became a avowed enemy of Austria. Thus the enmity between Austria and Serbia and Russia also corrupted the atmosphere.

(11) *Lack of International Organization.* This period was a period of intense nationalism. Every nation thought about her own interests. There was no organization to control the mutual interests and to enforce the international laws. Although Italy was the member of the Triple Alliance, she entered into a separate

agreement with France in 1902 A.D. and with Russia in 1909 A.D. to grind her own axe. These things led to bitterness and tension among various nations.

(12) *Secret Diplomacy.* Lawlessness spread in international sphere and secret diplomacy was at its climax. The alliances between the countries were kept secret and the people did not know about them. The foreign offices in the countries were places of intrigues and counter-intrigues. The British Foreign Secretary, Lord Grey, entered into an agreement with France. The British cabinet came to know about it in 1912 A.D. and the Parliament in 1914 A.D. This secret diplomacy gave rise to the feelings of mutual distrust and hatred and created tension and bitterness among the various European nations.

(13) *Near Eastern Problem.* Another cause of the war was the "*Near Eastern Problem.*" Turkey was a powerful nation during the 15th and 16th centuries and she had control over the Balkan states, but the Turkish power began to decline in the 18th and 19th centuries. As a result Austria, Russia, Bulgaria and Serbia began to increase their influence. It created rivalry and enmity among these nations. Germany also started laying the Berlin-Baghdad Railway line. It created a danger to the English Empire in India. Thus the Near Eastern Problem became very complicated and proved a sort of gun-powder for the First World War. In 1821 A.D. Bismarck said to one of his friends, "*I shall not see the World War, but you will and it will start in the East*"

(14) *Immediate Cause.* The gun powder of the War was getting ready since long in Europe but the murder of the Austrian Archduke provided the spark which set the whole Europe ablaze. The Austrian Prince Archduke Ferdinand was murdered in the Bosnian capital of Serajevo on June 28, 1914 A.D. The murderer was a Serbian. Austria put the blame on the Serbian government for this crime and sent an ultimatum. As Serbia refused to comply with some of the conditions, because Russia instigated her, so Austria declared a war against Serbia on July 28, 1914 A.D.

Within no time this war culminated in the First World War. England and Germany tried to make this war a local affair but they could not succeed. France and Russia came to the help of Serbia. At this Germany declared War against Russia. England wanted to keep aloof but when Germany attacked Belgium then England was compelled to join the War in order to safeguard the Belgian neutrality and his own political interests. On one side there were Serbia, Russia, France, England, Japan, Italy, America etc. They were called "*The Allies*". On the other side were Germany, Austria, Turkey, Bulgaria, etc. and they were known as "*The Central Powers*".

SECTION 2—EVENTS OF THE WAR

Germany invaded *Belgium* in 1914 A.D. and conquered it. Then she attacked *France*. There was bitter fighting on the French soil but the German forces reached upto a distance of 20 miles from Paris. Their advance was checked near the river *Maine*. The *Battle of Maine* is famous for trench-warfare. On the Eastern front the German forces under the command of Hindenburg defeated Russia. Turkey also joined the central forces. The Allies tried to capture *Gallipoli* and *Mesopotamia* but they failed.

In 1915 A.D. Italy joined the Allies and Russia won *Poland*. Bulgaria joined the central forces in September, 1915 A.D. and crushed *Serbia* very badly. The English army failed to capture *Baghdad* and faced a defeat in *Kutel Amara*.

In 1916 A.D. Germany started the submarine warfare and sunk many British warships but the French defeated her in the *Battle of Verdun*. The English tightened the blockade of the German coast to meet the German sub-marine-warfare. The Germans suffered a great defeat in the *Battle of Dogger Bank*. In May, 1916 A.D. a naval engagement took place in the *Battle of Jutland*. It was, however, a drawn battle.

The English continued the blockade of the German coast and her internal condition deteriorated due to the shortage of food stuffs. Russia fought on the side of the Allies upto 1917 A.D. when a revolution took place in that country. *The Czar's rule was overthrown*. As Russia wanted peace so they entered into a treaty with Germany and stopped the war. As a result of this the position of Germany became very strong. It appeared as if the Allies were going to lose. However, U.S.A. came to their help in 1917 A.D. Germany had sunk some American ships in which many Americans had to lose their lives. There was a lot of resentment in U.S.A. and President Wilson of U.S.A. declared War against Germany. Fresh American troops began to pour into Europe. They played an important role in turning the tables. Germany suffered a defeat in the Second Battle of *Maine* in 1918 A.D. The French General *Foche* was the commander of the Allied forces.

One by one her allies left Germany after his defeat. Bulgaria gave in on September 22, 1918 A.D. Germany could not stand all alone. She signed an armistice in November, 1918 A.D. and the war came to an end. A conference of the representatives of different European countries was held in Paris to settle the terms of treaty. Germany signed the Treaty on June 28, 1919 A.D. In addition, separate treaties were signed by the representatives of Austria, Hungary and Turkey and Bulgaria jointly. All these treaties were given the name of the Treaty of Versailles or the Peace Settlement of 1912-20 A.D.

SECTION 3—RESULTS OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

(1) *Loss of Men and Money.* This war was very destructive. Many people were killed, wounded and disabled during this war. It is estimated that during the period of four years about 80 lacs persons were killed, 60 lacs were disabled and about one crore and 20 lacs were wounded. About 80 lacs persons were declared as missing. To quote Hayes, "*Every family in Eastern and Central Europe, every family in Italy, France, and the large British Empire, and many families in America suffered loss of near relatives or close friends.*" According to Pt. Nehru, "*The First World War destroyed Europe and also some parts of Asia and Africa and killed many young persons.*"

Economically this war proved to be very destructive and costly. About 86, large and small, nations took part in it. Total expenses in this war were estimated at about \$ 186,00,000,000. This war also ruined many cities, farms and factories which led to the destruction of trade. In the words of Hayes, "*Never before had there been a struggle so gigantic, so deadly and so costly.*"

(2) *Victory of Nationalism.* Victory of Nationalism was another important result of this war. Spirit of nationalism played a significant role in the re-construction of Europe after the War. Persons of different nationalities used to live in one and the same country before 1914 A.D. The German, the Austrian, the Ottoman and the Russian empires were shattered and many small states such as Poland, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Czechoslovakia, etc. were created on the principle of nationality. Most of the nations, which were under the foreign rule, got their freedom.

(3) *Victory of Democracy.* Another important result of the First World War was the victory of democracy over autocracy. Various royal dynasties ruled over Russia, Germany and Turkey before the war. Their despotic rule was, however, overthrown and democratic governments were established there after the War. The German Emperor William II fled away. Democratic constitutions were set-up in Germany and Austria. Republic was set-up in Russia after the Revolution of 1917 A.D. The arbitrary rule also ended in Italy and a republic was set-up there after the War. People began to enjoy political rights and started taking part in the political affairs.

(4) *Rise of Dictatorship.* Many countries had to face knotty problems after the war and the democratic set-up were found incapable of solving them. This gave rise to dictatorship in these countries and power passed into the hands of a single person who came to be called as the '*Dictator*'. Dictatorship rose in Russia, Germany and Italy soon after the war. The power was assumed by an individual in these countries who declared himself to be the representative of the state. Nobody had the right to criticize or oppose him. There was no freedom of the press and speech and no rights were given to the general public.

(5) *Internationalism.* Internationalism also spread after the War. Mutual alliances, industrial progress and improvement in the

means of transport and communication brought different countries nearer to one another.

(6) *Expansion of Colonial Empires.* As a result of the War, imperialism received an impetus and each country tried to expand her colonial empire for the development of her trade and industries.

(7) *League of Nations.* The establishment of the League of Nations to stop wars in the future and to settle the international disputes was another important result of the War. The League of Nations made many efforts to settle various political, economic and social problems. It failed to achieve its aim in the long run but it was none of its fault. It failed because its members were selfish and did not trust one another.

(8) *Economic Effects.* The economic conditions of most of the nations deteriorated because they had to spend huge sums on war preparations. Cities, factories, fields and trade were ruined as a result of this war. Heavy taxes were imposed on the people. European nations had to get loans from America to solve their economic crisis. In this way the European markets came under the influence of America. The prices of things shot up after the war. This gave birth to capitalism. The condition of factory workers grew worse. They started many movements to safeguard their rights.

(9) *Germs of the Second World War.* Treaty of Versailles was unjust and very severe. It led to militarism, thus it contained the germs of the Second World War. This treaty was very disgracing for Germany. Her territories and overseas colonies were taken away from her. She was crippled and rendered very weak. It had adverse effect on her economy. She had to pay the heaviest indemnity. In this connection it has been aptly remarked, "*Economically crippled, politically segregated, militarily humbled, nationally humiliated, physically exhausted, Germany stood like pale person, just out of game.*" This treaty gave a death blow to the honour and prestige of Germany. Like Germany her allies, like Austria, Hungary, Turkey, Bulgaria, etc. were also treated harshly. Many portions were taken away from them. Their military power was reduced and they were compelled to pay war indemnity. This type of treatment resulted in another World War.

After taking the reins of Germany into his hands Hitler tore this treaty into pieces. He increased his military power and invented destructive weapons. He paid no heed to disarmament. He conquered territories including Poland, Danzig, etc. and this action of his led to the breaking out of the Second World War in 1939 A.D.

In the end in the words of John Conard Appel we can say, "*World War I brought death and destruction in its wake, and it also sowed seeds of more discord for the future. These seeds developed into violent revolutions and even fiercer militarism and nationalism.*"

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-shell

The First World War 1914-18 A.D

1. Causes. (1) France-German rivalry; (2) Division of Europe into two hostile groups; (3) Militarism, (4) Poisoning of Public opinion by newspapers, (5) Narrow nationalism; (6) Clash of imperialistic interests, (7) Germany's attempt to become the first-rate power of the world, (8) Character of Kaiser William II, (9) Anglo-German Rivalry; (10) Enmity between Russia and Austria; (11) Lack of International Organisation (12) Secret diplomacy, (13) Near Eastern Problem. (14) Immediate Cause

2. Events. Germany captured Belgium Battle of Maine and trench warfare; Allies failed to capture Gallipoli and Mesopotamia from Turkey; Bulgaria crushed Serbia, Submarine warfare by Germany, Defeat of Germany in the Battle of Verdun and Trench Warfare, Russian Revolution and its effects, U.S.A. joined the war and it turned the tables, Germany's defeat in the Second Battle of Ypres in 1918 A.D., Surrender of Germany and her allies, Treaty of Versailles.

3 Results. (1) Loss of Men and Money, (2) Victory of Nationalism; (3) Victory of Democracy, (4) Rise of Dictatorship, (5) Internationalism, (6) Expansion of Colonial Empires; (7) League of Nations, (8) Economic Effects, (a) Germs of Second World War.

University and Other Important Questions

1. Examine the causes and consequences of First World War. (B.U. 1963)
2. Describe the basic causes of World War I. Why did the United States enter the War? (B.U. 1965)
3. Examine the fundamental causes which led to rivalry among the Great Powers from 1870 A.D. onwards and review the circumstances which resulted in the outbreak of World War-I. (B.U. 1968)
4. Write short notes on the following
 - (1) Main causes of the World War-I
 - (2) Main effects of the First World War.
 - (3) Role of U.S.A. in the World War-I
 - (4) Events of the World War-I
 - (5) World War-I contained the germs of the Second World War.
5. Give the correct answer —
 - (1) World War-I broke out in 1914/1915/1916 A.D.
 - (2) Germany/England/Turkey was the members of Triple Entente
 - (3) League of Nations was founded in 1920/1921/1922 A.D.
 - (4) Germany/England/France was defeated in the Battle of Verdun.
 - (5) U.S.A. joined the World War-I in 1916/1917/1918 A.D.
6. Fill in the blanks
 - (1) World War I came to an end in . . .
 - (2) Germany captured . . . first of all
 - (3) Russian Revolution took place . . .
 - (4) Serbia was crushed by . . .
 - (5) Turkey took the side of . . . in World War-I.
7. Name the important events connected with the following dates: 1882, 1907, 1914, 1917, 1918, 1919, 1920 A.D. —

Rise and Fall of Dictatorship in Europe

When the United States of America entered the First World War it raised the slogan, "*Make the World safe for democracy*". After the war monarchical governments were abolished and republics were founded in many European countries. Democracy, however, progressed only for a short period. The years following the war saw autocratic governments, rising in many leading countries of the world. In different countries these new autocratic governments took on different forms, but they were all called dictatorships. They were governments under the rule of one man or a small group of men and the masses had little say in the administration. Great importance was attached to national interests rather than to individual interests. Every body lived for the state. The motto of the dictators was, "*everything for the state, everything within the state, and nothing outside the state.*"

SECTION 1—CAUSES OF THE RISE OF DICTATORSHIP

The following causes led to the rise of dictatorship in various European countries after the World War-I :—

(1) *Treaty of Versailles.* The Treaty of Versailles was unjust, very severe and humiliating. It was forced on Germany. It was a dictated treaty. At the Paris Peace Conference the representatives of Germany were not given any time to give their views. They were brought as prisoners to sign it. It was imposed by the victors on the vanquished. It was very disgraceful for Germany. Her territories and overseas colonies were taken away from her and she was crippled and rendered very weak. She had to pay the heaviest war-indemnity. Her military strength was greatly reduced. It has been rightly remarked, "*Economically crippled, politically segregated, militarily humbled, nationally humiliated, physically exhausted, Germany stood like a pale person, just out of the game.*" It gave a death-blow to the honour and prestige of Germany. It was very difficult for the Germans to bear this harsh treaty. They wanted to take revenge against the Allies. Hitler exploited their feelings and established dictatorship in Germany.

(2) *Dis-satisfaction of Italy.* Italy joined the Allies in the First World War with many hopes but they were not realized. After the war Italy became quite bankrupt. Her people were bitter because at the Paris Peace Conference they did not get as much territory as they expected to get. Italy lost 650,000 men in the war. Those who returned home found no jobs there. There was wide-spread poverty and disorder. The government was not able to solve its economic problem. Strikes, riots and sabotage was common and the weak Italian government was unable to control them. It was under these circumstances that Mussolini gained power and set-up dictatorship there.

(3) *Russia-a Super Power.* After the First World War the British Empire was broken up and England lost the leadership of the world. Now America and Russia began to increase their powers. They soon became the major powers in the world. Russian prestige rose very high as a result of the defeat of the Germany. Russia wanted to spread Communism in the whole world and it emerged as a dominant country under the dictatorship of Stalin.

(4) *Failure of Democracies.* After the World War I many countries had to face various complicated and perplexing problems. The democratic governments failed to solve their economic, social and political problems. It gave rise to dictatorships in these countries and power went into the hands of a single person who came to be called the 'Dictator'. He slowly and slowly assumed all the powers of the state. There was no freedom of the press and speech and no rights were given to the general public.

(5) *Failure of the League of Nations.* After the First World War League of Nations was established to maintain peace in the world, and to prevent wars. But it proved weak and failed to achieve its aims. The failure of the League paved the way for dictatorship.

(6) *The Allies failed to enforce the Treaty of Versailles.* The Allies enforced harsh terms on Germany by the Treaty of Versailles but the powerful countries like England, France and America failed to impose these terms. They also failed to check the rising of dictatorships. Had they acted well in time, the ambitious plans of Hitler would not have materialized and Germany would not have witnessed dictatorship under the leadership of Hitler. It has been rightly remarked, "*Rigorous enforcement of the treaty might have convinced Germany not only that it had lost the war but also that war did not pay.*"

(7) *Slump of 1929 A.D.* There was a great economic progress in the European countries from 1918 to 1929 A.D. In 1929 A.D. there was, however, a great slump in their countries. The prices rose high. Life became miserable. This slump gave rise to dis-satisfaction, discontent and frustration. People looked to powerful individuals to take the power in their own hands and to solve their economic problems. So the slump of 1929 A.D. led to the growth of dictatorship in some European countries.

SECTION 2—RISE OF DICTATORSHIP IN TURKEY

Turkey joined Germany in the World War I and was defeated. Turkey had to sign the Treaty of Sevres by which she had to cede most of her territories in Europe. Her military power was reduced and she was made to pay a huge war-indemnity. No efforts were spared to crush her. The nationalist Turkey, however, refused to accept such humiliating terms. But under the leadership of Mustafa Kamal Pasha, a great revolutionary, they made a great progress in different spheres of life. Consequently, Turkey did not remain a sick-man but emerged as a strong and progressive country. The credit for saving Turkey from dismemberment and making her a powerful nation goes to Kamal Pasha.

1. Rise of Mustafa Kamal Pasha (1880-1938 A.D.)

Kamal Pasha was born in an ordinary family in Salonika in 1880 A.D. He received military education in a military school at Constantinople. He was very promising. He was a man of strong and iron-will and possessed military and political genius of high order. He studied the revolutionary literature and came to the conclusion that the country could be liberated from the corrupt rule of the Sultan by the revolution and only then Turkey could be made a strong and progressive country. He took part in the Young Turk Movement in 1908 A.D. Then he showed his bravery in Turko-Italian War of 1911-12 A.D. and the Balkan War of 1912-13 A.D. He made a great name by defeating the English during the First World War in its early stages.

2. National Government of Ankara. After the First World War the Allies thrust upon Turkey the disgraceful and severe Treaty of Seyres. But Kamal Pasha took it as a national disgrace and asked the Sultan not to accept that Treaty but the Sultan did not agree to his proposal. Kamal Pasha then organised the army and established the People's Party. His slogan was, "*Turkey for the Turks.*" He himself called a National Assembly of the people at Ankara and declared it to be the representative of the people. Kamal Pasha was made the President of the National Assembly as well as the Commander-in-Chief of the Nationalist Army. In this way the Nationalists set-up a parallel government with that of the Turkish Government at Ankara.

3. Achievements of Kamal Pasha. After establishing the National Government, Kamal Pasha tried to free Turkey from the foreign influence. He compelled Italy to vacate Anatolia and the French, Sillesia. Then he toppled the new Armenian Republic.

(1) *War with Greece.* The Greeks turned the Turks out of Therae and captured Smyrna. She also tried to crush Kamal Pasha's power. In 1921 A.D. the Greeks even attacked Turkey and started advancing towards Ankara. Kamal Pasha, however, gave a crushing defeat to the Greeks and captured Smyrna, Constantinople and Dardenelles.

(2) *Treaty of Lausanne, 1923 A.D.* Kamal Pasha did not accept the Treaty of Sevres that was forced on Turkey so the Treaty of Lausanne was signed in July, 1923 A.D. Turkey gained the Eastern Thrace, Adrianople and Constantinople. Her claim over Armenia was also accepted. Restrictions imposed on her army, navy and air force were removed. It was a great victory of Kamal Pasha who saved Turkey from disintegration and foreign interference. In this way Turkey became a sovereign state.

(3) *Republic in Turkey and New Constitution* The Sultan was removed on November 1, 1922 A.D. and a Republic was established there in October, 1923 A.D. Democratic system of government was set-up in Turkey and a new constitution was given to her in 1924 A.D. The administrative powers were vested with the National Assembly. Elections to it were held on the basis of the adult franchise every four years. This Assembly elected the President for a period of four years. Kamal Pasha was elected the President of the Republic. He enjoyed absolute powers because there was only one political party, i.e., People's Party and Kamal Pasha was its leader. He had full control over the army also. So Kamal Pasha became almost dictator because all the powers of the state were vested in him. But he used his powers for the welfare of the people.

(4) *Reforms of Kamal Pasha* Kamal Pasha was a progressive man and was deadly against the conservative views. He introduced various reforms to modernize Turkey :—

Religious Reforms He made Turkey a secular state. Religion and politics were separated. The old laws were based on 'Sheriat' or the Holy Law. He introduced many changes in the Legal Codes and gave secular form to them. His new Legal Codes were not based on the Quran but on the systems prevailing in Italy, Germany and Switzerland. They granted equality before law to all the citizens of the state. Religious schools were closed and educational institutions were instructed not to give religious teachings. The property of the religious institutions was confiscated and used for public welfare. Caliphate was abolished and Islam was not recognized as the state religion now. The use of 'Fiz' (a particular kind of cap) was also abolished.

Educational Reforms. Education was made compulsory for all the children within the age-group of 7 to 16 years. Many schools, colleges and universities were opened. Latin alphabet replaced the Arabic alphabet. Libraries were set-up for the promotion of education. Separate schools were opened for the development of different arts. The decimal system was introduced in weights and measures. European solar calendar was also introduced. Foreign teachers were also employed to raise the standard of education.

Social Reforms He also introduced sweeping changes in the social set-up. Polygamy was abolished. Provision for divorce was also made. The system of civil marriage was also recognized. The 'Purdah' system was discarded and women were given full liberty and equal

civil and political rights. The western dress was encouraged among both men and women. In this way Kamal Pasha tried his utmost to make Turkey a modern nation.

(4) *Economic Reforms.* He encouraged agriculture by helping farmers and giving them training in the use of improved methods of agriculture. Agricultural Colleges were opened and banks were set up even in villages. Many reforms were introduced for the progress of small scale industries and the welfare of the workmen. Many industries were nationalised and many factories were opened. Five Year Plans were adopted for the industrial progress of the country. He promoted trade and commerce as well. He also improved the taxation system and public finance. His reforms resulted in the prosperity of the people.

(5) *Foreign Policy.* After the First World War Kamal Pasha lost complete faith in the Western Powers and was drawn towards Russia and other countries for having friendly relations. He entered into treaty with Russia in 1925 A.D. In 1932 A.D. Turkey became the member of the League of Nations. In 1934 A.D. Turkey made the Balkan Pact with Greece, Rumania and Yugoslavia. In 1937 A.D. she signed a pact with Iraq, Iran and Afghanistan. In 1936 A.D. League of Nations granted her permission to militarise and fortify the Straits. In this way Turkey became a powerful state. She was no longer 'the sickman of Europe'. It has been rightly said, "*On the eve of the Second World War, Turkey was a strong, powerful and progressive state and a new life has been infused in the so called Sickman of Europe*"

From the above account it is quite clear that Kamal Pasha played an important role in the reconstruction of Turkey. He freed Turkey from foreign bondage. He put an end to the autocratic rule of the Sultan and established a Republic there. His benevolent despotism proved very useful for Turkey. He introduced religious, social, educational and economic reforms to reconstruct and modernize Turkey. He strengthened the position of Turkey in the international sphere by creating friendly relations with other countries. Before his death in 1938 A.D. he had made Turkey a strong, powerful and progressive country. He is rightly called, 'Ataturk' (or Fa'her of the Turks) for his services to his motherland. In this connection **Grant and Temperley** writes, "*Ataturk built up Turkish State which gave to its citizens, men and women, greater freedom and security than any of their forefathers had enjoyed and transferred Turkey into an independent, sovereign state, free from foreign interference for the first time for almost two centuries.*"

SECTION 3—RISE AND FALL OF DICTATORSHIP (FASCISM) IN ITALY

During the First World War Italy joined the Allies. Her hopes were not fulfilled by the Treaty of Versailles. There was econo-

mic crisis in Italy after the war. The government could not solve the economic problems. This gave rise to unrest and lawlessness in the country. Under these circumstances the nationalists organised the Fascist Party under the leadership of Benito Mussolini. He took the reins of the government into his hands and set-up a dictatorship in Italy. This dictatorship assumed the name and form of Fascism.

1. Meaning of Fascism. The word '*Fascism*' is derived from the Roman word '*Fascio*' which means "*a bundle of Royal Sticks*". In olden times when the Roman Emperors entered the capital after victory, they used to carry royal sticks in their hands which were the symbols of dictatorial authority of the state and the emperors. So '*Fascism*' means autocracy or dictatorship where the whole power of the state is vested in one person only and it is compulsory for the countrymen to carry out his orders. Nobody can dare or has the right to criticise or oppose his policy.

2. Principles of Fascism. Fascism was quite the reverse of democracy. The whole power of the state was vested in one person. Fascism was the supporter of one party and one leader. There was no place for opposition in Fascism. The leader of the Party was all in all in the country. He was above law. No one could challenge his authority or criticise him. Fascism was against the individual and in favour of the state. It laid more stress on the duties of the individual rather than on his rights. It laid great emphasis on nationalism. It wanted to enhance the power and prestige of the country by making it powerful. It supported the imperialistic and aggressive foreign policy so that the country should gain power and prestige in the international sphere. Mussolini has said, "*Fascism is based on the revolution, work and objectives of the state. According to it, state is complete but the individual and associations are incomplete.*"

3. Causes of the Rise of Fascism. Following were the chief causes of the rise and spread of Fascism in Italy :—

(1) *Discontentment after the Treaty of Versailles.* Italy joined the Allies in the First World War with the hope of expanding her empire. But during the Paris Peace Conference her hopes were dashed to the ground and she got much less than she expected due to the opposition of the American President Wilson. According to one Italian writer, "*Italy got nothing from the colonial dinner*". The Italians felt as if they had been deceived and thought that even their right demands were ignored. Imperialist designs of Italy were completely ignored. This led to the rise of Fascism in Italy.

(2) *Economic Crisis.* Many people were killed and millions of rupees were spent in the war. As a result of this the national debt increased tremendously. There was also a great shortage of food-grains in the country. Unemployment was increasing day by day. The prices of commodities rose. The industries and trade was

ruined. The condition of the middle class people, farmers and the working class became very critical. There was a great economic crisis in Italy after the War. There were riots and uprisings which led to unrest and favoured the rise of dictatorship in Italy,

(3) *Weak Government.* A wave of unrest and anger spread in Italy as a result of the economic crisis and the national dishonour which was meted out to Italy by the Treaty of Versailles. The liberal government of Italy was too weak to solve the problems and to keep the situation under control. People were fed up with the weak policy and in-efficiency of the government. They wanted to replace such a weak and in-efficient government by a powerful and bold one. Such a feeling of the people helped Fascism to flourish in Italy. It has been rightly remarked, "*Bold leadership was wanted and it was supplied by the Fascists.*"

(4) *Activities of the Socialists.* The Socialists which included the Anarchists, the Communists and the Social Democrats made the atmosphere more poisonous by their revolutionary ideas. The Communists inflamed revolutionary ideas and instigated the peasants and the workers. This led to riots, strikes and lock-outs, etc. The Communists created chaos, disorder and anarchy as they wanted to overthrow the government and capture power. People were sick of such a state of affairs and wanted a powerful and bold leader to establish peace and prosperity by ending the lawlessness and insecurity prevailing in the country. Such a state gave rise to Fascism. Ketelbey has rightly said, "*It was the urgent need of a strong and unifying force that formed the background for the rise of Fascism in Italy.*"

(5) *Mutual Differences of various Political Parties.* There were different political parties in Italy such as the Liberals, the Catholics and the Socialists, etc. These parties had their different policies and programmes. There were six Coalition Governments between 1919 and 1922 A.D. The mutual differences, rivalries and enmities among these parties led to political instability. They weakened the government to such an extent that it could not face the situation. Such a state of affairs helped in the rise of dictatorship in Italy.

(6) *Efforts of the Nationalists.* There were many nationalists in Italy at that time and they became afraid of the activities of the Communists. The landlords, the rich, the youngmen, artisans, retired soldiers, teachers and the middle class people comprised this part of the society. They wanted to save the country from chaos and lawlessness created by Communism. They formed different groups called '*Fascios*' and as such they came to be called the Fascists. By and by their number increased and at last Mussolini organised them into the Fasciste Party and established his dictatorship.

4. *Early Life of Mussolini and Rise of Fascism in Italy.* Mussolini was born at Romanina, a town in Italy in 1883 A.D. He was the son of a poor blacksmith. After receiving education he became a

teacher. He believed in Socialism. He had to flee from Italy because of his revolutionary ideas. He lived in Switzerland as an exile but the Swiss Government ordered him to go back to his country when he began to spread the social principles there.

He came back to Italy and started spreading the Socialist principles. In 1912 A.D. he became the Chief Editor of the Socialist newspaper 'Avante.' During the First World War he joined the army and was wounded. On recovery he restarted working as the editor of his newspaper.

The Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. inspired the Socialists of Italy and they started revolutionary activities. Mussolini now became an opponent of Communism, because he felt that it would make Italy a slave of Russia.

After the war there was great discontentment and unrest in Italy. Economic crisis and violent activities of the Communists created lawlessness and indiscipline. The Nationalists decided to set up a strong government. They formed different groups called 'Fascios' at different places. By and by their number increased and they became very popular. Mussolini brought them under his control and set-up the Fascist Party. The members of this party were supporters of nationalism. They created the impression in the minds of the public that only the Fascist Party could take the country out of this crisis.

In 1922 A.D. Mussolini organised a great armed rally of the volunteers of the 'Fascios'. According to the fixed plan the 'Black-shirts' of the Fascist Party attacked Rome on 27th October, 1922 A.D. At that time Mussolini remarked, "*Either the government will be given to us or we shall seize it by marching on Rome.*" The weak king Victor Emmanuel III was terrified. He dismissed his Prime Minister and instead made Mussolini his Prime Minister on October 30, 1922 A.D. Mussolini took all the powers of the Government into his own hands and established the dictatorship of the Fascist Party. He was against democracy. He was of the view "*Democracies are like shifting sand. Our political ideal is like a rock granite peak.*"

5. Work and Achievements of Mussolini

(1) *Law and Order.* Mussolini took all the military and civil powers into his own hands and became all-in-all in Italy. He set-up 'Fascios' to create national feelings among the public. All opposition was dealt with quickly and cruelly. All political parties, except the Fascists, were banned. No secret societies were permitted in Italy and all newspapers were strictly censored. Very reliable Fascists were appointed on higher posts. By all these steps he was able to establish law and order in the country by ending unrest and lawlessness.

(2) *Economic Reforms.* Mussolini introduced many reforms to improve the economic condition of the people. He reduced the

government expenditure. Many factories were set-up for the industrial development. Workmen were provided many facilities. The means of transport and communication were developed to promote industry and trade. He took various steps to promote agriculture. The marshy lands were reclaimed. The agricultural produce was increased by the use of scientific manures, implements and new methods of agriculture. In this way he made Italy rich and prosperous by his economic reforms.

(3) *Educational Reforms.* Schools, Colleges and Libraries were opened to promote education. The education was based on the Fascist principles. Only those persons could teach who had faith in Fascism. Military training was made compulsory. Thus the feelings of nationalism were infused in the youngmen through education.

(4) *Other Reforms.* Corruption and inefficiency were removed and morale of the public was raised. Roads, bridges, hospitals, dams, canals, etc. were constructed on a large scale. Special efforts were made to increase the military force of the country. Aeroplanes and ships were also made in large number. In fact Italy tried to equal herself with Germany and France in her naval force.

(5) *Treaty with the Pope.* Mussolini realized that Pope's approval was necessary in order to get popular backing for his government and to strengthen his political position. This was necessitated because most of the Italians were Roman Catholics. He signed the Treaty of Latern with the Pope in February, 1928 A.D. by which the Pope recognized the Italian Government over Rome. In return, the Government recognized the sovereign authority of the Pope over the Vatican. Catholicism was declared as the state religion. Thus Mussolini gained power and prestige by his treaty with the Pope. It has been rightly said, "*Fascism made a political use of religion and saw in it a valuable aid to authority and a stabilising force against social upheavals.*"

(6) *Foreign Policy.* The Treaty of Versailles did not fulfil the wishes of Italy and gave a great set-back to her international prestige. Therefore the main aim of his foreign policy was to increase the prestige and glory of Italy in international sphere and to make her a powerful country. So he followed an aggressive, vigorous, powerful and bold policy. He used to say, "*Italy must expand or perish.*"

By the Treaty of Lousanne in 1923 A.D. he regained the islands of *Rhodes* and *Dodecanese* which were ceded to Greece in 1920 A.D. He gained the city of *Fiume* from Yugoslavia in 1924 A.D. He turned *Albania* into a protectorate of Italy. He entered into commercial and diplomatic treaties with France and Russia to strengthen the power of Italy. He captured *Abyssinia* in 1936 A.D. and when there was hue and cry against this in the League of Nations, Italy left the League of Nations. After that Italy's relations with England and France deteriorated and she

was drawn towards Germany. She entered into a treaty with Germany called the 'Rome-Berlin Axis'. Later on Japan also joined it and it began to be called 'Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.' It proved a cause of the Second World War in 1939 A.D. Italy declared war against England and France in 1940 A.D. Italy was, however, defeated along with Germany. This defeat was too much for Mussolini who died in 1943 A.D. Fascism also met its end in Italy with the death of Mussolini. Rome was conquered by the Allies in 1944 A.D. and consequently Italy had to sue for peace in 1945 A.D.

In short, Mussolini played an important part in the History of Italy. He set-up his dictatorship in 1922 A.D. Since then he greatly reformed the internal condition of Italy by spreading Fascism in Italy. Due to him Italy made a great progress in different spheres of life and became a powerful nation. She attained international prestige and became one of the great world powers. But Fascism came to an end with the fall of Mussolini.

SECTION 4—RISE AND FALL OF THE NAZI DICTATORSHIP IN GERMANY

After the First World War Germany had to face an economic crisis. There was unrest in the country. Lawlessness appeared and there were revolts at many places. The weak government could not control the situation. William II, the ruler of Germany was compelled to resign and he fled to Holland on 10th November, 1918 to save his life. The Communists tried to get power into their hands but they failed badly. The Constituent Assembly was formed on January 19, 1919 to frame the new constitution for Germany. The new constitution known as '*Weimer Constitution*' was introduced on August 10, 1919 A.D. It set-up a Democratic Republic in Germany. The new Republic had to face many problems. But it could not solve these problems and its failure gave rise to dictatorship (or Nazism) in Germany under the leadership of Adolf Hitler :—

1. Causes of the Rise of Dictatorship of the Nazi Party.

The following causes led to the rise of Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany :—

(1) *Humiliating Treaty of Versailles.* Germany was compelled to sign the Treaty of Versailles by which she had to pay a huge war indemnity. This treaty was very harsh and humiliating. This created the feeling of dis-satisfaction among the people of Germany. They looked down upon the Weimer Republic which had signed such a disgraceful treaty. The Republic was regarded as a symbol of national disgrace. Germany wanted to establish her old prestige. When Hitler assured the Germans about the establishment of the old prestige they became his followers.

(2) *Economic Crisis.* Germany had to face an economic crisis after the First World War. She suffered heavy losses in life

and property in the First World War. After the war many soldiers became unemployed. Trade and commerce was also ruined. The workmen were thrown out of employment. In 1929 A.D. there was, however, a great slump in Europe. It affected Germany also. Germany was in the grip of unemployment and starvation. The prices rose and value of money fell like anything. The Republic failed to solve the economic crisis. Hitler took advantage of this situation. The people believed a brilliant leader like Hitler who had promised them a new world.

(3) *Spread of Communism* Being inspired by the Russian Revolution of 1917 A.D. the German Communists also tried to bring about a revolution in Germany. Hitler feared that Germany would become a slave of Russia if Communism spread there. He exposed the destructive results of Communism to his people. He roused the national feeling among the people and instigated them against Communism. Consequently, the workmen and the masses joined the Nazi Party in large numbers.

(4) *Germany had no faith in Democracy.* The Germans had no faith in democracy. Democracy was against their culture and traditions. They were unable to understand and follow the democratic institutions. They preferred prestige and glory to liberty and freedom. They at once gave whole-hearted support to a strong man of action like Hitler who could transform their dreams into reality. Thus the mentality of the Germans helped Hitler to become a dictator.

(5) *Party Strife.* There were many political parties in Germany. Social Democrats, Nationalists, Royalists and the Communists were the chief parties. The period from 1919 to 1933 A.D. was a period of party-strife in the history of the German Republic when each party tried to gain power. This weakened the Republic and the Nazis gained a good opportunity to snatch power.

(6) *Personality of Hitler.* Hitler possessed a very influential and charming personality. He was a first-rate orator. He was a resourceful person, a tireless worker and an able organiser. His speeches were very effective and had a great logic in them. Naturally the people began to have a blind faith in him and they started thinking him a great leader. It has been rightly said, "of propaganda he was past master."

(7) *The Volunteer Corps* German military force had been greatly reduced by the Treaty of Versailles. Many soldiers were rendered surplus and unemployed. Hitler organised the Volunteer Corps with the help of these soldiers. Hitler crushed the opposition parties with the help of this Volunteer Corps and later on he greatly organised and strengthened his party with their help.

2. **Early Life of Hitler and Rise of the Nazi Party.** Adolf Hitler was born in a poor family at a small town of Braunau in Austria in 1889 A.D. He became orphan at a very small age. He

worked as a mason and then as a painter. He was a strong supporter of German-nationalism and started dreaming about German unity. He served his motherland by joining army during the First World War and got the 'Iron Cross' for his bravery.

After her defeat Germany had to sign the humiliating Treaty of Versailles. Hitler had a firm view that the German defeat was caused by her leaders and not by her army. He formed the National Socialist German Workers Party in 1919 A.D. Later on it came to be known as the '*Nazi Party*'. Its membership went on increasing and it became very popular and at last it succeeded in snatching power.

The Nazi Party had its own army which was divided into two parts. One part put on brown uniforms and its main function was to save its party members and to break up the meetings of the opposition parties. The other part put on black shirts and its main duty was to save their party leaders. A newspaper, with the name of (People's Observer or Guardian) was published to spread principles of Nazism.

In 1923 A.D. Hitler joined the Royalists to overthrow the Republic. This attempt failed and he was imprisoned. In the jail he wrote his famous book '*Mein Kampf*' which contains the principles, aims, plans and programmes of the Nazi Party. This book helped a lot in the spread of Nazism. It is known as the '*Bible of the Nazis*.'

Hitler was set free after a year. He organised the Nazi Party from 1925 to 1929 A.D. and set-up its branches at every place. In 1929 A.D. there was a great slump in Europe. It affected Germans and there was an economic crisis there. Germany was in the grip of unemployment and starvation. He defamed the Republic and made it clear to the people that only the Nazi Party could solve the national problems and lead the nation out of the crisis. As a result, the middle class people, traders, capitalists, soldiers, teachers, students, etc. joined this party in large numbers.

Hitler opposed Hindenburg for the presidential election in 1932 A.D. but was defeated. In the 1932 election the Nazi Party won 230 seats in the Legislature and gained the majority in the Reichstag (the Lower House of the Parliament). So in 1933 A.D. Hindenburg was compelled to appoint Hitler as his Chancellor or the Prime Minister. Hitler began to dream of becoming the dictator. Hitler dissolved the Reichstag and ordered fresh elections. But some one set on fire the building in which the Reichstag was holding its meeting. At this Hitler crushed the opposition parties with strong hands and the Nazis became all in all.

In 1934 A.D. when President Hindenburg died, Hitler became both the President and the Chancellor. He became all in all and assumed the title of '*Führer*' or the Sole Leader of Germany. So by 1934 A.D. Hitler became the Dictator of Germany and there was left no other party in Germany except the Nazi Party.

3 Hitler's Home Policy. The main aim of Hitler's internal policy was to strengthen the internal position, to establish national unity, to heighten the national prestige and to improve the economic condition of the country :—

(1) *National Unity.* Hitler was a great supporter of national unity. With this thing in view he abolished both the Reichstag and the separate provincial governments so as to set-up a powerful central government. The basis of his administration was one party, one leader and well disciplined administration. He adopted the old flag of Germany. In this way he brought about the national unity by establishing the autocratic rule of the Nazi Party. He used to say, "*The National Socialist Party is the State.*"

(2) *Suppression of the Opposition.* Hitler suppressed the opposition with a firm hand. Many restrictions were imposed on the opposition parties and they were prohibited from spreading their ideology. The government had complete control over the press, the radio and the educational institutions. Hitler organised a police force from his Volunteer Corps, known as the '*Stormy Troops*'. They helped him to crush the opposition. Those who criticised the government, were sent to the concentration camps. He was deadly against the Jews and imposed strict rules upon them. As such many Jews left for other countries.

(3) *Economic Reforms.* There was a great economic crisis in Germany after the war. So in order to meet the situation Hitler set-up factories and started several reconstruction works to provide work to workmen of his country. Many acts were passed to improve the condition of the workers. But they had no right to form unions and to go on strikes. Different types of industries were encouraged. Imports and exports were controlled to meet the national interests. He also took steps to promote trade. Thus the Nazi Government strictly supervised the whole economy of the country to gain self-sufficiency.

(4) *Education.* He set-up such a system of education as to produce strong supporters of Nazism. Education was given according to the principles of Nazism. The chief task of the schools was to prepare the youth for the service of the country.

(5) *Increasing the Military Power.* The Military power of Germany had been reduced by the Treaty of Versailles but Hitler wanted to make Germany a powerful country of the World. He neglected the Treaty of Versailles and increased the number of German soldiers. The war-material ships and aeroplanes were produced at a quick speed. The Rhineland was fortified and navy and airforce were strengthened. He used to say, "*We want guns and not butter.*"

(6) *Religious Policy.* Hitler wanted to have a complete control over the Church. His Nazism could have no union with religion, so the Protestants and the Catholics alike opposed his policy. Thus

there arose a conflict between the Church and the State. But Hitler tried to suppress the different religious groups. Many clergymen were imprisoned and many more were transported to the concentration camp.

A Foreign Policy of Hitler. The main objectives of his foreign policy was to do away with the evil effects of the humiliating Treaty of Versailles. He wanted to make Germany a great power of Europe, increase her military power and to restore her old prestige. In the beginning, under the garb of peace, he tried to befool the European nations and made preparations for the future confrontation with them.

On coming to power he violated the Treaty of Versailles and refused to pay the war-indemnity. He started increasing his military power and the fortification of his territorial limits. The Valley of Saar had been handed over to France according to the Treaty of Versailles. But it was annexed to Germany in 1934 A.D. after referendum. In 1936 A.D. he captured the Rhineland and fortified it. Hitler tried to annex Austria into his empire in 1934 A.D. but failed to do so. He entered into a non-aggression treaty with Poland for a period of 10 years in 1934 A.D. for the safety of his eastern frontiers. But all countries of Europe were simply alarmed to see his imperialist designs. First of all Italy and Czechoslovakia entered into a military pact against Germany. France also joined it afterwards. When Hitler declared that Germany would not abide by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, France became alarmed. So France signed a pact with Russia and Czechoslovakia joined them afterwards. On the other hand Hitler also started the formation of groups to strengthen his position. He concluded an 'Anglo German Naval Agreement' in 1933 A.D. In 1936 A.D. he signed a treaty with Italy known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. Later on Japan also joined this treaty in 1937 A.D. In this way Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis came into existence in 1937 A.D. So Europe was divided into two hostile groups by 1937 A.D.

After strengthening his position Hitler attacked Austria on March 13, 1938 A.D. and annexed her in his empire. Hitler succeeded in annexing Sudetanland (a part of Bohemia) in September, 1938 A.D. Later on he seized the whole of Czechoslovakia. Hitler had no passage to reach the Baltic Sea. So he demanded the port of Danzing from Poland. Poland refused to accede to his demand. Hitler attacked Poland on September 1, 1939 and with that the Second World War started. This war continued upto 1945 A.D. But in the end Germany was defeated in this War. She had to surrender in 1945 A.D. Hitler also committed suicide. With his death the Nazi dictatorship also came to an end in Germany.

Summary of the Whole Chapter in a Nut-Shell

1. Causes of the Rise of the Dictatorship in Europe. (1) Treaty of Versailles; (2) Dis-satisfaction of Italy, (3) Japan's Policy of Expansion; (4) Russia a Super Power; (5) Failure of democracies; (6) Failure of the League of Nations; (7) Failure of the Allies to enforce the Treaty of Versailles; (8) Slump of 1929 A.D.

2. Rise of Dictatorship in Turkey Mustafa Kamal Pasha established dictatorship in Turkey. (1) Early Life of Kamal Pasha and his rise to power; (2) National government at Ankara, (3) Achievements of Kamal Pasha—War with Greece; Treaty of Lausanne of 1932 A.D.; Republic in Turkey and introduction of new constitution; (4) Reforms of Kamal Pasha—Religious and educational reforms; Social and economic Reforms. (5) Foreign Policy, Treaty with Russia in 1925 A.D.; Joined the League of Nations in 1932 A.D. He made Turkey a powerful and progressive nation; The title of '*Ataturk*' or Father of the Turks is attached to his name.

3 Rise and Fall of Dictatorship (Fascism) in Italy

(1) *Meaning of Fascism* Fascism is derived from a Roman word '*Fascio*' meaning dictatorship. Dictator is all in all in this system.

(2) *Principle of Fascism.* (i) Reverse of democracy, (ii) One Party; (iii) Leader of the Party is all in all; (iv) No place for opposition; (v) Opponent of Individualism, (vi) Stress on nationalism; (vii) Equal control on all people, (viii) Aggressive Foreign Policy.

(3) *Causes of the Rise of Fascism.* (i) Discontentment after the Treaty of Versailles; (ii) Economic Crisis, (iii) Weak government; (iv) Activities of the Socialists, (v) Mutual differences of various political parties; (vi) Efforts of the Nationalists

4. Rise and Fall of Dictatorship in Italy.

(1) *Early Life of Mussolini and his Rise to Power* (i) Born in 1883 A.D.; (ii) Belief in socialism and revolutionary ideas; (iii) Exile to Switzerland; (iv) Editor of a newspaper named '*Avante*'; (v) Preached socialism in Italy, (vi) Part Played in the First World War, (vii) Opposed Communism in Italy. (viii) Formation of *Fascio*, (ix) Organisation of the Fascist Party by Mussolini, (x) Attack on Rome in 1922 A.D. and becoming a dictator.

(2) *Work and Achievements of Mussolini.* (i) Restoration of law and order, (ii) Economic reforms, (iii) Educational reforms; (iv) Treaty with the Pope, (v) Foreign Policy and defeat of Italy in the Second World War and murder of Mussolini and end of Fascism in 1945 A.D.

5 Rise and Fall of the Nazi Dictatorship in Germany

(1) *Causes of its Rise* (i) Humiliating Treaty of Versailles; (ii) Economic Crisis, (iii) Spread of Communism. (iv) Germany had no faith in Democracy; (v) Party Strife, (vi) Personality of Hitler; (vii) The Volunteer Corps

(2) *Early Life of Hitler and Rise of the Nazi Party* (i) Born in a poor family in 1889 A.D. (ii) Incomplete education. (iii) Service during the First World War, (iv) He formed Nationalist Workers Party in 1919 A.D. and changed it into the Nazi Party later on, (v) His failure to overthrow the government with the help of the Royalists in 1923 A.D., (vi) His imprisonment and writing of the book named

'Mein Kampf'; (vii) Economic crisis helped him to rise; (viii) His defeat in the election for Presidentship in 1932 A.D.; (ix) Majority of the Nazi Party and Hitler became Prime Minister in 1933 A.D.; (x) He became the President and the Dictator in 1934 A.D.

(3) *Hitler's Home Policy.* (i) National Unity; (ii) Suppression of the Opposition; (iii) Economic Reforms; (iv) Education; (v) Military Power; (vi) Religious Policy.

(4) *Foreign Policy of Hitler.* (i) Its Purpose and Aim; (ii) Breach of the Treaty of Versailles; (iii) Regained the Valley of Saar; (iv) Treaty with Poland in 1933 A.D.; (v) Early Attempt to capture Austria failed; (vi) Groupism in Europe against Germany; (vii) Treaty with England; (viii) Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis; (ix) Annexation of Austria in 1934 A.D.; (x) Annexation of Czechoslovakia; (xi) Attack on Poland; (xii) Germany's defeat in the Second World War and suicide by Hitler in 1945 A.D.

University and other Important Questions

1. Describe fully the rise and growth of Turkey under Musatafa Kamal Pasha's dictatorship.
2. What service did Kamal Pasha render to the cause of Turkish Nation?
3. What do you mean by Fascism? What were its main principles? Account for the rise of Fascism or dictatorship in Italy.
4. State the circumstances that led to the rise of Mussolini in Italy. What were his achievements?
5. Examine the main factors responsible for the rise of dictatorship in Germany.
6. Who was Hitler and how did he rise to supreme power in Germany.
7. Account for the rise and growth of dictatorship in Europe in the period between the two World Wars. (B.U. 1962)
8. Account for the growth of dictatorships in the interval between the two World Wars and assess the achievements of Adolf Hitler. (B.U. 1964, 72)
9. Assess the causes and the consequences of the rise of dictatorship during the Inter-War period in any one of the following countries :—
(a) Italy (b) Germany (c) Japan. (B.U. 1968)
10. Write short notes on the following :—
(1) Kamal Pasha (2) Benito Mussolini (3) Adolf Hitler (4) Cause of the rise of dictatorship in Europe. (5) Hitler's responsibility for the Second World War (6) Fascist Party. (7) Nazi Party. (8) Treaty of Lausanne.
11. Write the correct Answer :—
(1) England/France/Italy was dissatisfied with the Treaty of Versailles.
(2) Hitler/Kamal Pasha/Hindenburg was the founder of the Nazi Party.
(3) Hitler became the dictator of Germany in 1932/1933/1934.
(4) Italy joined the Allies/The Central Powers in the Second World War.
(5) Mussolini was murdered/committed suicide.
12. Fill in the blanks in the following :—
(1) Kamal Pasha is called the . . . of the Turks.
(2) . . . founded the Fascism in Italy.
(3) The conquest of . . . by Hitler led to the Second World War.
(4) Kamal Pasha died in . . .
(5) The Stormy Troops were organised by.....
13. Give the important events connected with the following dates —
1921, 1922, 1923, 1932, 1934, 1935, 1937, 1938, 1939.

The Second World War, 1939-45 A.D.

The First World War came to an end in 1918 A.D. The world heaved a sigh of relief but it was not known that after 20 years there would be another war which would be more disastrous than the first one. The League of Nations failed to establish peace in the world. When Hitler came to power in Germany, he refused to accept the Treaty of Versailles. He started the expansion of his empire and increased his military power. Soon Europe was divided into two rival groups as a result of his aggressive policy. The cold war began and in 1939 A.D. it terminated in the Second World War.

-1. Causes of the War The following were the chief causes of the Second World War :—

(1) *Unjust Treaty of Versailles.* The Treaty of Versailles, by which the First World War came to an end was completely based on injustice. It was very harsh. It was a dictated peace and Germany was forced to sign it. The defeated nations, especially Germany had to cede many of her territories, and all her colonies were forcibly taken away from her. Germany was divided into two parts for the benefit of Poland. She was burdened with huge war-indemnity which she could never pay. Her military power was considerably reduced. The treatment meted out to her was based on the spirit of revenge. Consequently that treaty created hatredness in the minds of the Germans. It was a black spot for the Germans and they wanted to wash it. This could never be done without armament and as such war was quite inevitable.

(2) *Improper Behaviour of France.* After the First War Germany and her allies were treated harshly, much because of the revengeful attitude of France. France should not have pressed the things too far for the sake of peace, but there was a least change in the French behaviour. Germany suffered a great blow by ceding the Valley of Saar. It badly told on the industrial development of the country. France was not satisfied with this and she captured the industrial zone of 'Ruher' in 1923 A.D. This lone incident turned the German democratic rule to military dictatorship.

(3) *Rise of the Nazi Party in Germany.* The democratic government could not succeed in Germany because of the French behaviour. It gave rise to dictatorship in Germany. So the Nazi Party easily progressed under the leadership of Hitler. By 1934 A.D. he took the power into his own hands completely and he became the Dictator of Germany. He rejected the Treaty of Versailles and increased his military power. He fortified the Rhineland and annexed Austria, Sudetanland and Czechoslovakia etc into his own empire. He wanted to regain the old glory and prestige of Germany and make it a world power. In order to achieve its objectives the Nazi Party followed the path of war.

(4) *Dis-satisfaction of Italy* Italy joined the Allies in the First World War with high hopes but she was not satisfied with the territories she gained, consequently, dictatorship was established there under the leadership of Mussolini. He introduced many reforms and put a new life in the people of Italy by giving military training to them. He wanted to revive the glory of the Old Roman Empire. Italy like Germany adopted an aggressive policy and captured Abyssinia and Albania. Like Hitler, Mussolini's aggressive policy gave a severe blow to the League of Nations and created an atmosphere of hostility in the world.

(5) *Japanese Policy of Expansion.* Another cause of the war was the Japanese policy of expansion. The ambitions of Japan increased after the First World War. Though Japan and China fought on the side of the Allies in the First World War yet Japan got more concessions than China. She developed her navy and by 1930 A.D. she increased her strength. In 1931 A.D. she attacked China and seized Manchuria. Again there was a war between Japan and China in 1937 A.D. Many Chinese cities fell into the hands of the Japanese. During the Second World War Japan joined the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis and entered the war in 1941 A.D. to satisfy her hunger for more territories.

(6) *Problem of Minorities.* After the First World War adjustments were made in the territorial limits of different nations. Many territories were annexed with such countries which had different cultures and civilisations. Austria, Poland, Czechoslovakia etc were such states. The minorities of these states were not satisfied because they failed to get all the facilities for their full development. Such people greatly resented the step motherly treatment meted out to them. The principle of self-determination which was emphasised by the Allies fanned the fire of nationalism and political freedom among the minorities. When the German subjects of these states revolted, Hitler annexed them on the pretext of helping the Germans. This Policy led to the Second World War in 1939 A.D.

(7) *America's Aloofness from European Politics.* After the First World War America kept aloof from the European politics and did not join the League of Nations. As a result England all alone could not prevent France from ill-treating Germany. Germany

could never forget the humiliation she had to suffer at the hands of France and plunged the whole world once again into darkness. American aloofness helped the military rulers of Germany and Italy to adopt violent and aggressive attitude and they ignored the League of Nations very easily.

(8) *Imperialistic Interests* England and France had a hold over a great part of the colonies. On the other hand all the colonies of Germany were taken away from her after the First World War. Consequently she had no facilities for the raw material and the markets. Italy was not satisfied with the gains from the war. She was also in search of colonies. Japan also required colonies for her increasing population and industrial development. England and France did not like that Germany or her allies should establish their colonies anywhere in the world. So the conflict of the imperialistic designs of the different nations was but natural. Japan captured Manchuria and Italy occupied Abyssinia and Albania. Germany did not lag behind and she also acquired many territories. Who could avert the Second War under these circumstances?

(9) *Problem of Disarmament* By the Treaty of Versailles the military power of the defeated nations was reduced and they were prohibited from producing large quantity of war material. The big nations were asking the small nations for disarmament but they themselves were not ready to follow that policy. Germany, Italy and Japan had started making preparations for war and the production of war material. Other European powers also began to follow the slogan "*Security first, disarmament after-wards.*"

The democratic states of Europe also began to arm themselves. This race for armament paved the way for the Second World War. According to **Hitler**, "*Re-armament was the only road for national achievement*"

(10) *Rise of New Ideologies.* After the First World War the democracies were set-up in most of the European countries. But the rise of dictatorship in Russia, Italy and Germany created an upheaval in Europe. There was a conflict in the rival ideologies of democracy and dictatorship which encouraged groupism in Europe and brought the war nearer. According to **Mussolini**, "*The struggle between the two worlds can permit no compromise, either we or they.*"

(11) *Weakness of the League of Nations* The League of Nations was set-up to maintain peace in the world and to prevent wars. But it proved quite weak and failed to achieve her objectives. She did not have any military power to implement her decisions and to punish the defaulters. Again there was a lack of co-operation among the member-nations and they wanted to use the League for grinding their own axes. It is rightly said, "*While the founding-fathers of the League undermined it from within, the nationalists, militarists and the fascists were attacking it openly from without.*"

When Italy annexed Abyssenia, Japan Manchuria and Germany annexed Austria and Czechoslovakia, the League of Nations could not take any action against them, so the member-nations lost their faith in the League and started preparing the war material on a large scale. **Hitler** used to say, "*The reconquest of lost territories cannot be achieved by solemn appeal to Almighty God or pious hope in the League of Nations but by armed forces*"

(12) *Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis.* After coming to power Hitler began to increase the military power of Germany. He fortified the Rhineland and tried to annex Austria and certain other territories. The European countries began to look at him with doubt. They began to form many alliances for their safety. Soon the world was divided into so many power-blocks. First of all Italy, France, and Czechoslovakia formed a block in 1934 A.D. In 1935 A.D, France, England and Italy signed a pact to check the rising power of Germany. After that France signed a pact with Russia and Czechoslovakia also entered into an agreement with Russia. Under these circumstances Germany started a search for allies and signed pacts with Italy and Japan. Thus was formed the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. Later on England and France also formed another power block. So Europe was divided into two rival camps by 1939 A.D and under these circumstances war could not be avoided for long.

(13) *Immediate Cause* Germany had already annexed Austria and Czechoslovakia. By the Treaty of Versailles Germany was divided into two parts in order to give a land-route to Poland upto the sea and the Port of Danzig was also handed over to Poland. This was too much for Germany and so she demanded it back and without waiting for the reply she attacked Poland on September 1, 1939 A.D. England asked Germany to vacate Poland but Germany refused to do so. So on September 3, 1939 A.D. England declared war on Germany. Thus began the Second World War in 1939 A.D.

SECTION 2—EVENTS OF THE WAR.

The Second World War started on 3rd September, 1939 A.D. and many countries small or big took part in it. Germany, Italy, Japan, Rumania etc. formed one block and were known as the Central Powers. On the other hand there were 80 small or big nations like England, France, America, etc who were known as the Allies. In the beginning Russia was on the side of Germany but she joined the Allies later on.

(1) *Early Successes of Germany.* Hitler attacked Poland on September, 1939 A.D. and occupied it. At the same time Russia also invaded Poland from the East. They partitioned Poland between themselves. Later on Russia had no faith in Germany, so she conquered Finland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, etc.

Germany annexed Norway and Denmark in April, 1940 A.D. Holland also fell to Germany on May 24, 1940 A.D. Hitler conquered Belgium on 27th May, 1940 A.D. The English army escaped with great difficulty through the Port of Dunkirk.

(2) *Defeat of France.* Germany invaded France from three sides in June, 1940 A.D. She occupied Paris on June 10 and the French General Petain was forced to surrender on June 22, 1940 A.D. Later on France was divided into two parts. One part was held by Germany and other remained under General Petain.

(3) *War with England.* The British Prime Minister Chamberlain could not direct the warfare properly, so he was replaced by Churchill. He prepared the English to defend their island at all costs. The German aeroplanes started air attacks and made heavy bombardment on London and other towns. Many British ships were sunk by the Germans. The English held on with great courage and they also started the bombardment of Germany. Thus Germany failed to force England to surrender to her.

(4) *Italian Failure in North Africa.* After the fall of France, Italy also declared war on the Allies. Italy gained some success in the beginning but soon Lord Wavell defeated her and captured the Italian colonies in Africa. Libya, Somaliland and Ethiopia were also liberated from the Italian rule. In October 1942 A.D. the English General Montgomery gave a crushing defeat to the German army under the command of General Romel, which was sent to help the Italians. It dashed all the hopes of Mussolini to the ground.

(5) *Critical Time for the Allies.* In 1941 A.D. Hitler conquered Greece, Crete and Yugoslavia and took hold of the Eastern Mediterranean. Then he tried to capture Syria, Iraq, Iran and put an end to the Eastern Empire of England but he failed.

(6) *Early Victories of Japan.* Japan also jumped into the war on the side of Germany for she wanted to dominate the whole of Asia. America was a great hurdle in her way. She attacked the American port of Pearl Harbour and sank her two war-ships. Soon Japan conquered Shanghai, Hongkong, Malaya, Singapore, Philippines, Sumatra, Java, Bali, Borneo etc. She also captured Rangoon on March 8, 1942 A.D. and started attacking the north-eastern frontier of India.

(7) *Germany invaded Russia.* Hitler had signed the non-aggression pact with Russia before the beginning of the war. He however, violated that pact and attacked Russia in June, 1941 A.D. for he wanted to conquer her fertile tracts and to occupy her mines and oil fields in order to augment his resources. The German army conquered Ukraine and reached near Moscow and started attacking Moscow and Leningrad. The most fierce battle was fought at Stalingrad. In September, 1942 A.D. Germany was

forced to withdraw from Russia. Thus Hitler's Russia campaign failed miserably and it proved a great cause of his failure.



President Roosevelt and Winston Churchill at a Conference during the Second World War

(7) *Fall of Italy, Germany and Japan.* General Montgomery badly defeated Italy in Africa. The American forces under General Eisenhower also joined the English army. After a fierce fighting at Tunisia the Italian forces surrendered in May, 1943 A.D. Rome was also conquered in 1944 A.D. and thus forced by circumstances the people of Italy murdered Mussolini in 1945 A.D. Thus was completed the fall of Italy.

In 1944 A.D. the Allies started air raids on Germany in June, 1944 A.D. In August, 1944 A.D. they conquered back Paris and freed France from the German occupation. Later on, the German forces were compelled to vacate Belgium and Holland. Russia also attacked Germany from the east. It became quite difficult for Germany to fight on two fronts at the same time. Seeing his defeat quite near Hitler committed suicide in April, 1945 A.D. After this the German forces surrendered to the Allies unconditionally on May 7, 1945 A.D.

After the surrender of Germany, the Allies issued an ultimatum to Japan to surrender or to face destruction. Japan did not pay any heed to that. So two Atom Bombs were dropped on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August, 1945 A.D. With that Japan also surrendered unconditionally on August, 14, 1945 A.D. After Japan's surrender the war came to an end in 1945 A.D.